The Nation.

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The Week.

The Puritan conscience of New England found its first expression in the discussion of the Porto Rico tariff bill on Thursday, when Representative McCall of Massachusetts uttered his indignant protest against it. On Friday the same conscience again found expression in the vigorous speech made against the pending bill by Representative Littlefield of Maine, "because it is un-Republican, un-American, unprecedented, unwarranted, and unconstitutional." All accounts agree that this speech, like McCall's the day before, was one of extraordinary force and impressiveness, the two constituting a fine reassertion of Republicanism as it was in the earlier days—the Republicanism of Abraham Lincoln, John A. Andrew, and William Pitt Fessenden. It was characteristic of the change which has come over the party that Mr. Littlefield should have been followed by a Republican who objected to the statement of conscientious views, on the ground that such an expression of principle would do harm. Mr. Gardiner of Michigan said that "the speech of Mr. Littlefield and those of others in opposition would do mischief in spreading doubt and discontent among Porto Ricans." The President has pointed out to the people "our plain duty"; the Secretary of War, the Governor-General of Porto Rico, the President's Commissioner to the island, and the United States Consul to Porto Rico all agree with this view. But the protected interests have turned the Ways and Means Committee around, and forced the reporting of a bill directly opposed to that which was first favored by the Committee. And now any Congressman who believes that plain duty remains as much plain duty in February as in December, is told that he ought to keep quiet, because if he stands up for principle it will "spread doubt and discontent among Porto Ricans"!

In his speech defending the tariff bill for Porto Rico, Chairman Payne said that his original bill of January 19, granting the island free trade, had been changed "after consultation with Gen. Davis." This leaves certain awkward mysteries, on which we wish that Mr. Payne would throw light. Gen. Davis was before the House committee on insular affairs on January 8. He then advocated free trade for the island, and said that, under it, the people would be "quite able to support themselves." He must later have appeared before Mr. Payne's committee, for that gentleman distinctly said, when introducing his free-trade bill on January 19, that it was "along the lines *suggested by Gen. Davis.*" Chairman Payne added: "I think the bill expresses the general view of those who have followed the hearings. The essential point is that the legislation will aid Porto Rico without in any way injuring American interests." Now, what kind of "consultation" it was which induced Mr. Payne to execute his right-about we discover in the press reports of the later hearings before his committee. Thus, on January 31, Mr. Oxnard spoke against the bill as "a menace to the American beet-sugar industry"; Mr. Hill of Louisiana attacked it as a dangerous "entering wedge" for free sugar from Cuba and the Philippines; and Mr. H. S. Frye opposed it in behalf of the American League of Producers and the tobacco-growers. Mr. Payne would thus appear to have made a slip of the tongue on February 19; and his speech should read, instead of "after consultation with Gen. Davis," "after having the riot act read to us by the protected interests."

The argument of ex-Senator Henderson on the power of Congress to lay special taxes on Porto Rico, which was read at the anti-Imperialistic meeting at Philadelphia, is a singularly concise statement of the law of the Constitution as heretofore interpreted by the Supreme Court. The leading cases on the subject have been now pretty clearly stated, and it is evident that the chief reliance of the Imperialists will be on the principle that our government has sovereign powers beyond and outside of the Constitution. On this point Mr. Henderson makes some observations that may well arrest the attention of those who regard our Constitution as having outlasted its usefulness. Absolute sovereignty, he admits, rests with the people of the United States, but, he adds: "As an American, I am proud to know that the government of the United States is *not* unlimited in its sovereignty. . . . The Constitution was made by the people as a check upon their representatives. . . . A nation which possesses the power to govern itself, without dependence upon any foreign power or state, is properly denominated a sovereign state. The form of its government is wholly immaterial." As Judge Story puts it, the sovereignty of a nation or state may be absolute and uncontrollable in all respects, except the limitations which it chooses to impose upon itself. But the sovereignty of the government organized within the state may be of a very limited nature. And these limitations are designed to protect the rights of the people against the arbitrary acts of their rulers.

The imperialist or despotic theory of government, as stated by Representative Dalzell, ignores these distinctions. He expressed his sorrow that Mr. McCall thought that the American people could not be trusted to do justice unless "tied down by the terms of a written instrument." But it is not the people that are tied down; it is Representative Dalzell and his fellow-Congressmen, and President McKinley and his Commissioners, when they propose to disregard those fundamental rights of mankind which the Constitution was framed to protect. According to Mr. Dalzell, it is idle to inscribe the principles of liberty "on any parchment." The "flag" is enough to preserve these great principles. The guarantees of liberty "do not depend upon the Constitution for their strength and perpetuity." They do not need the support of the Constitution, for "no American Congress would dare to violate them in the face of the American people." It is evident that, according to this theory, all the praises that have been bestowed on constitutional, as opposed to absolute, government have been misplaced. Bills of rights and constitutional checks are superfluous. If they are unnecessary when Congress undertakes to govern colonies, they can certainly be dispensed with when it legislates for our own people. It would seem to follow that the Supreme Court is no more needed than the Constitution which it was created to expound. This doctrine may be convenient for the present purposes of the Republican party; but what would Mr. Dalzell say were the Democrats to get control of the government, and proceed to legislate in accordance with their views of what the people desired?

Prof. E. G. Bourne of Yale University raises in the *Evening Post* the question whether the pending Porto Rican tariff bill is not in conflict with that clause of the Constitution which provides that no tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State. The question is an interesting one. It is evident that articles imported into Porto Rico from any of the States of the Union must be articles exported from those States. It is equally evident that if Congress lays a duty on such articles when they enter Porto Rico, it is laying a duty on exports from this country, which it is prohibited from doing. The doctrine of the imperialists, as announced by Representative Dalzell, is that the Constitution does not apply to Territories, and that there is nothing to hinder Congress from laying duties on imports into New Mexico or Alaska from the rest of the country. Any one who adopts this view of the Constitution would probably find no difficulty in maintaining that when Con-

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gress lays duties on articles imported by Porto Rico from this country, it is not taxing our exports. The best way out of the difficulty is to let the Porto Ricans govern themselves, and lay such duties as they think best.

We regret to see that President Schurman, in his Chicago speech, has landed on the commercial basis of our doings in the Philippines, and finds a justification for them in the supposed fact that we shall sell more goods by virtue of our occupation of the islands. This is the Beveridge argument over again, to which Senator Hoar responded with the Saviour's reply when he was offered all the kingdoms of the world if he would pay homage to the spirit of gain: "Get thee behind me, Satan." We agree with Senator Hoar that no amount of trade or of pecuniary gain can compensate us for what we have done and are doing in the Philippines, and we deny that any net pecuniary gain will come to us from that quarter. Mr. Schurman's economical argument is entirely destitute of foundation. In order to show how needful it is commercially for us to hold the Philippines, he points to Africa as an illustration of the smallness of our foreign markets, and uses what is substantially an argument for grabbing any territory that we can lay our hands on. It certainly implies that we were remiss in not seizing some portion of Africa before it was all gobbled up.

Now, what are the facts about our trade possibilities in Africa? The chief trading countries of that continent are South Africa, where the war is now raging; Egypt, the Sudan, the Congo Free State, and the British possessions on the Niger. These countries embrace nine-tenths of the foreign trade of Africa, and every one of them is open to us without any discriminating duties or regulations of any kind. The only African countries worth mentioning which in any way justify Mr. Schurman's remarks about our "exclusion," are Algeria and the French Sudan and German East Africa. The French possessions have cost France ten times as much money as she has ever got out of them, and German East Africa has thus far been worthless to Germany. If we were offered as a free gift all the African possessions of both those countries, we could not afford to take them. Except as furnishing places for needy politicians, they are of no use. Even Great Britain has found her African colonies a losing game. Not only have they brought upon her numerous costly wars in Egypt, the Sudan, and Ashantee, but she is now engaged there in the bloodiest conflict she has seen since the war in the Crimea, and, according to the best financial authorities, the cost of it will wipe out all savings she has been enabled to make since 1879. In the latter year she began systematically to pay off the national debt. She set apart a fixed sum annually for this purpose. She will be obliged to borrow all this money afresh, and some of her statesmen say that her greatest troubles will come after she reaches Pretoria. Yet Great Britain is far superior to us in tact and experience in managing distant colonies and getting on with troublesome neighbors.

The Chinese Minister to this country has frequently indulged in his childlike and bland humor at our expense; and in his address in Philadelphia on Washington's birthday, he added a few more delicious touches of it. One was his account of the consular system of other nations, as built up and operative in China, and his dry suggestion that it would be "not unwise" for the United States to endeavor to secure trained consuls, who know something of the language and habits of the people among whom they are stationed. He did not refer to the fact that the bill for consular reform, urged by our leading commercial bodies, had just been ignominiously shelved in Congress; but it must have been in the minds of many of his hearers. The Minister was at his humorous best, however, in advocating an extension of the Monroe Doctrine to China. With grave show of argument, he reasoned it out that China is now much nearer to American possessions than Patagonia was in Monroe's time, and that really it is high time the Chinese empire were included in the American system. An appearance of Oriental innocence, veiling sly sarcasm, could no further go. The "late Col. Monroe" would appear very late indeed in the guise of stern moralist warning the Powers to keep hands off China.

We have the best of reasons for believing that Secretary Hay will soon inform Congress and the country of the details of his successful Chinese negotiation. As we understand the matter, what he has obtained from European Powers is a guarantee of our trade rights in China, not under the form of a treaty, but by means of an exchange of official notes. To have negotiated treaties would have been the work of months or years; the method adopted was both expeditious and effective. Of course, no other sanction than a moral one attaches to the agreement, but no other sanction, after all, binds nations to maintain treaties inviolate, or to respect the rules of international law. It is much to be hoped that Mr. Hay will speedily publish a full account of his highly important achievement. It would show the war-at-any-price men how vastly more renowned are the victories of peace than those of war. It would also, we think, by its heightening of the prestige of the State Department, help on the ratification of the Hay-Pauncefote canal treaty, upon which the Jingoes have been breaking their teeth.

The Senate currency bill has been substantially accepted by the House conferees, and there is every reason to suppose that the report of the conference committee will be adopted. The gold standard is enacted without any equivocation, and the Secretary of the Treasury is *required* to keep all kinds of money issued by the United States at a parity—this being a more explicit declaration than that of the Sherman act, which merely declares it to be the policy of the United States to do so. For this purpose the Secretary is authorized to sell 3 per cent. bonds to whatever amount may be necessary to maintain a gold reserve of $150,000,000. A division of issue and a division of redemption are established in the Treasury Department to have the sole charge of the currency function of the Government. No bonds can be issued to meet current expenses of the Government without special authority of Congress. These provisions are somewhat less satisfactory than those of the original House bill, but they will accomplish the object, which is to put the question of the monetary standard out of the field of controversy. This is so great an achievement that it is not much dimmed by the refunding scheme which the House conferees accepted after some resistance. The Republican party has in this respect reversed its own financial past, and endorsed the policy of a permanent national debt. This is one of the issues it will have to meet in the next campaign. It is true that the Secretary is only authorized, not required, to issue the new thirty-year bonds. He may elect not to do so, but in that event it will be a matter for wonder why the party should be willing to incur the odium of the permanent debt policy without availing of it.

The Republican and Independent newspapers which supported McKinley on the financial issue in 1896 are coming to perceive that this issue is settled by the assured enactment of the gold-standard law at an early day. Some of the party organs can hardly disguise their chagrin at the loss of an issue which once served them so well, and which until recently they had counted upon using as effectively again. Occasionally one takes the position of the Hartford *Courant*, that it is "real mean" for people to act upon the understanding, which has been maintained by every Republican in Congress, that the new law makes the gold standard permanent, whoever may be the next President; as the *Courant* puts it, it is "abominable politics" for Democratic newspapers to

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say that it removes the country from danger from Bryan's heresies on the money question. But most editors do not waste any time in vain regrets over the abominable politics of the Democrats in this case, because it is a part of their creed that Democratic politics are always abominable. They are considering how the Republicans can carry the country after they have made the people believe that the money question is settled.

The central West was carried for McKinley on the financial issue only after a very hard struggle, four years ago. Republican and Democratic journals in that section do not conceal their feeing that the policy pursued by the McKinley-Hanna syndicate, of running the government in the interests of the protected classes, the subsidy schemers, and the Trusts which are protected by the tariff, is playing into the hands of the Democrats. The Indianapolis *News*, for example, says that "the thing to do is to kill the subsidy bill," alleging as one reason that "the Republicans are not so strong in the confidence of the country that they can afford to take chances." The *News* also confesses that "the Democrats are going to have the advantage of the Republicans in the approaching campaign on the Trust question, unless the Republicans do something at this session of Congress." It holds that "one thing at least they could do—unless the power of combined wealth really has the upper hand in the party: they could remove the tariff from every product which in this country is now controlled by a Trust." But, of course, the *News* knows perfectly well that the power of combined wealth which refuses the appeal for humane treatment from Porto Rico, will never allow the tariff to be overhauled in order to diminish the profits of the Trusts.

The decision of the Senate to take up the Quay case, by a vote which is regarded as assuring him the seat that he claims upon the appointment of the Governor of Pennsylvania, is no surprise to those who understand the potency of personal considerations in club life. For it is in their capacity as members of the finest club in the United States that a majority of men who do not consider Quay's claim a valid one, are going to pronounce it good enough to justify his return to fellowship. During his long term of service, the Pennsylvania boss has made many firm friends on both sides of the chamber, and has put many Senators under heavy obligations. He simply insists now that they shall show their friendship and acknowledge their obligations. Enough of them are apparently ready to comply, so that he may regard the matter as settled. That the Senate, in taking such action, will turn its back upon an interpretation of the Constitution which it affirmed less than two years ago, is a consideration which counts for nothing with the majority of the eighty-odd members of the club.

It is a great triumph for civilization that the leaders of the opposing parties in Kentucky should have agreed to submit all the questions at issue to the courts, and then abide by their decision. There is to be a speedy trial in the Jefferson Circuit Court of cases which involve the title to the Governorship; the matter will then be taken to the State Court of Appeals; either party will then be at liberty to carry the questions involved up to the Supreme Court of the United States, with a prayer from all concerned for the earliest possible hearing and determination; and, finally, "they will submit to and abide by all the orders and judgments of the courts made in said suits." In other words, the whole controversy is to be settled in an orderly fashion by the tribunals constituted to decide all such questions, and not by the resort to force which was so long threatened and so narrowly averted.

The sudden termination of the movement in the Bar Association to investigate the action of Justice Fitzgerald in appointing a receiver for the Brooklyn Wharf and Warehouse Company will, no doubt, cause exultation in Tammany Hall. It will probably be described as a vindication of the course of that Justice, although, when properly understood, it is nothing of the kind. The resolution presented proposed that an investigation should be made by the Assembly of the State. To the question asked by Mr. Boardman, if there was a man present who believed that any substantial result would be gained by taking the charges to Albany, there could be but one answer. The public understands the character of the Assembly and the character of the bosses who control it, and it has had recent experience of the character of investigations carried on under such auspices. If an impeachable offence had been committed, it would by no means follow that an impeachment could have been secured; and, in fact, the offence committed was rather morally than legally impeachable. To appeal to the Legislature under such circumstances would be useless. What is needed is an investigation such as the Bar Association could make, if it had the legal power to summon witnesses and compel them to give evidence—but that, unfortunately, it has not. It by no means follows, however, from the defeat of the proposed resolution that no good has resulted from the agitation. The fact that some 500 of the better class of lawyers attended the meeting, and the vigor of the opinions expressed by a number of those whose standing is of the highest, show how strong is the feeling that has been aroused. They indicate that whenever the opportunity comes to revolt against the present system of selecting judges, men will be found ready and eager to take part in the struggle.

Assemblyman Stewart has introduced a bill at Albany to prevent the publication of scandalous matter found on the person, or in the possession, of suicides, or persons dangerously wounded. It provides that all papers so found shall be sealed up and delivered to the county authorities, and that they shall not be published except by the order of a competent court. The need of such a law has been felt many times in this city. Persons who take their own lives are presumably insane. They have strange ideas of the conduct of their most intimate friends and relatives. They conceive that plots have been formed against them. They put these disordered fancies into writing, and, when they commit suicide, the papers found upon them are published in the yellow journals without the smallest regard to the feelings of the living. The charges made, or the reproaches uttered, by the dead cannot be refuted. The dead person cannot be cross-examined, and most frequently the persons injured by such communications are reluctant to make any defence of themselves. In fact, their only legal remedy would be by an action for libel against the offending newspaper. Mr. Stewart's bill ought to pass, and it ought to be supported by appropriate penalties for any unauthorized publication of such posthumous matter.

Gen. Roberts's success could not well be more complete. Since his movement began, he has swept on with swift energy and without a single check. Not only did he break through the Boer defences and raise the siege of Kimberley; he so massed superior forces that Gen. Cronje was forced to hurried flight eastward, and then, wonder of wonders, the British commander showed that he had an army more mobile than the fabulously mobile Boers; ran them down, surrounded them, beat off the columns coming to their relief, and finally compelled an unconditional surrender. Considering the magnificent distances, the nature of the country operated in, and the other difficulties, it is a feat of arms for which it would be hard to find a parallel in brilliant conception and overwhelming success. To the Boers the blow must be staggering. The best they can hope for now, if they persist in fighting, is the prolonged agony of an essentially guerilla defence, sure to be broken down in the end by the attrition of an enemy vastly stronger in men and resources. It is on all accounts to be hoped that an honorable peace may be arranged without further waste of life; but we fear the contrary.

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THE PRESIDENT AND PORTO RICO.

The framers of the Federal Constitution took pains to give the President of the United States great power of initiative regarding legislation by Congress, and even greater power of thwarting attempted action by the legislative department which he should consider unwise. Much as they had suffered from the tyranny of a king, they realized that the National Executive must possess a large measure of authority if the new republic were to succeed. As Hamilton said in the 'Federalist': "A feeble Executive implies a feeble execution of the government. A feeble execution is but another phrase for a bad execution." In further discusion of the subject, Hamilton laid stress upon the dangers of "an unbounded complaisance in the Executive to the humors of the Legislature," saying on this point: "The latter may sometimes stand in opposition to the people, and at other times the people may be entirely neutral. In either supposition, it is certainly desirable that the Executive should be in a situation to dare to act his own opinion with vigor and decision."

For these reasons it was made a duty of the President that "he shall, from time to time, give to the Congress information of the state of the Union, and recommend to their consideration such measures as he shall judge necessary and expedient"; and he was vested with the power of vetoing any bill passed by Congress, in which case it could not become a law except by passage a second time with a two-thirds vote in each branch. Of the first prerogative, Story says:

"The duty of giving information by the President to Congress of the state of the Union, and of recommending measures, would seem almost too clear to require any express provision. But it is not without its use. It fixes the responsibility on the President; and, on the other hand, it disables Congress from taking any objection, that he is impertinently interfering with their appropriate duties. His knowledge of public affairs may be important to them; and the people ought consequently to have a right to demand it. *His recommendation of measures may give Congress the benefit of his large experience; and, at all events, may compel them to a just discharge of their legislative powers.*"

In accordance with this injunction of the Constitution, President McKinley, on the 4th of December last, gave Congress information respecting the condition of Porto Rico, and recommended the measure of legislation for that island which he judged necessary and expedient. His conception of national duty in the matter was clear, and his language was explicit. He concluded his discussion of the subject with these positive words:

"The markets of the United States should be opened up to her products. Our plain duty is to abolish all customs tariffs between the United States and Porto Rico, and give her products free access to our markets."

In due course of time the Republican majority of the House Committee on Ways and Means reported a bill carrying out the President's conception of national duty by giving Porto Rico free trade. Within a month, however, some influence compelled all of the Republicans on this committee except Mr. McCall of Massachusetts to eat their own words, and report a substitute bill imposing a tariff. Hardly had this change of base at the capitol been executed before it was reported that the President had also altered his position. Next day it was announced that he had not changed; then that he had; then that he "adhered to his views," but would sign a bill directly opposed to those views. Throughout the debate last week in the House, he was quoted first one way, and then the other. Supporters of the new tariff scheme declared that he was for taxing the people of Porto Rico; advocates of the original free-trade policy insisted that he talked as though he believed that plain duty remained the same in February as it had been in December.

So humiliating a spectacle as this has never before been presented by any President. It disgusts alike the members of his own party in Congress, and the people throughout the country. The nation has been educated to expect and demand from its Executive a clear statement of national duty, and the exercise of his great influence to secure the discharge of that duty by Congress. It admires and respects the President who thus exercises his high prerogative—who does what Grover Cleveland did in 1893, when he convened Congress in special session to rescue the national finances from threatened ruin by demanding the repeal of the Sherman silver-purchase act, and then stood firm as a rock when intriguers of the Gorman brand in his own party cooked up a scheme to evade duty by a weak compromise, letting it be known that he would never give his consent to anything short of the absolute repeal which the exigency demanded.

There was one course open to Mr. McKinley by which he might have saved his self-respect. It was pointed out, the other day, when Mr. Bromwell, a Republican Congressman from Ohio, who favors the policy advocated by Mr. McKinley in December, said in the House: "If the President of the United States, since his message to Congress in December, has obtained information which shows that conditions are different to-day from what they were then, it is a solemn duty that he owes to this house and the other house of Congress that he should communicate that additional information to us, that we should not be dependent upon conversations and interviews of individual members of this house with the Chief Executive for the information upon which we, as a legislative body, are to act." But Mr. McKinley has not done this. He has simply made it plain that he has no will of his own; that he is ready to declare his conviction of duty to Congress, and then sign a bill utterly opposed to the course which he advised; in short, that he is the nerveless creature of the syndicate which is now running the government for its own selfish ends, and that the people no longer have that great safeguard of our institutions—an Executive who knows his duty, and who is not afraid to do it.

THE ISSUE OF IMPERIALISM.

The address delivered by Carl Schurz on Thursday evening in Philadelphia, at the conference of the Anti-Imperialist Organization, was, of course, characterized by that clearness and vigor of expression which always distinguishes one of his speeches. It shows the remarkable comprehension of the principles upon which this republic was founded, and of real "Americanism" as it was understood from Washington's day to Lincoln's, which has repeatedly enabled this citizen of foreign birth to illuminate the national situation and to expound the duty of the country.

Beginning with some references to Washington which were appropriate to the anniversary, Mr. Schurz went on to apply the principles of action which governed his conduct to the problems that have grown out of the war with Spain. He first pricked the bubble of that familiar humbug that "Providence" is responsible for our having the Philippines on our hands, and showed that the conquest of those islands "was deliberately planned with a cool calculation of profit." He proceeded to set forth the way in which the policy thus initiated has been carried out. He demonstrated the fact that the Filipinos were at first deceived as to the attitude of our Government toward them, and were led to believe that we meant to help them to freedom and independence, precisely as we had helped the Cubans to reach the same goal. The evidence which he collated is convincing, and fully justifies the conclusion that to all intents and purposes the Filipinos were our allies; that they were entitled at our hands to every consideration due from one ally to the other; that they expected their independence because they believed the American people to be an honest people, and the American government to be an honest government; and that we permitted them to entertain that belief while acting as our allies against the common enemy.

Mr. Schurz repelled with righteous indignation the Imperialist claim that the Filipino war is due to those in this country who have from the first insisted that we should live up to our pledges, instead of to those who have attempted that "annexation by force" which President McKinley himself declared, in a message to Congress two years ago, "could not be thought of, because, according to our code of morals, it would be criminal ag-

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gression." It was for the maintenance of this, the old American code of morals, that Mr. Schurz pleaded in the closing portions of his address. He insisted that "the case is *not* finally settled, and that it will not be finally settled until it be settled aright."

Bishop Potter early pointed out that the vital question in this whole controversy was not what we should do with the Philippines, but what they would do with us. Mr. Schurz set forth some of the things which they are doing to us—how we already "hear the scoffing levity with which the Declaration of Independence and the high ideals of liberty and human rights which so long have been sacred to our people are made sport of; how the teachings of Washington and Lincoln are derided as antiquated nursery rhymes, and how the Constitution, when it stands in the way of grasping schemes, is lightly brushed aside with the flippant word, that 'constitutions are made for men and not men for constitutions.'" He laid stress, but none too much, upon the great principles which many good people are losing sight of, that there are things—among them the arbitrary ruling of foreign populations as subjects—which may be done by monarchical or aristocratic governments without making them less strong as monarchies or aristocracies, but which cannot be done by a democracy based upon universal suffrage without fatally demoralizing it as a democracy; and that what a democracy needs most, to insure its stability, is that element of conservative poise in itself which can be furnished only by popular faith in the principles underlying democratic institutions, by popular reverence for high ideals and traditions, and by popular respect for constitutional forms and restraints.

Mr. Schurz concluded by warning the Imperialists not to delude themselves by thinking that if those who oppose them are beaten now, they will surrender. He declared that the appeal for the righting of this great wrong will be taken to the people; that it will be kept there, and, if need be, renewed year in and year out; and that "it will give you no rest, as the slavery question gave us no rest, until finally settled aright." The Anti-Imperialists will wage this fight, because the upholders of the Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution, the followers of Washington's and Lincoln's teachings, although they may be called "traitors" or "bores," will not give up the belief that the American people are an honest people; and, like the anti-slavery men, they will not cease to appeal to the popular conscience.

It was a happy coincidence that, on the very day when this appeal for justice was made by Carl Schurz at a meeting of Anti-Imperialists in Philadelphia, the same appeal was heard on the floor of Congress from a Republican member who represents that district of New England which is peculiarly distinguished for independence of conviction and adherence to conscience. The whole issue of Imperialism is involved in the pending controversy in the House over the imposition of a tariff upon the starving people of Porto Rico. Mr. McCall of the Cambridge (Mass.) district made an earnest protest against our adoption of the very policy which England so long pursued toward Ireland, with such results that "generations will fail to obliterate the bitter memories of the oppression and wrong which rankle in the hearts of the Irish people"; and asked his party colleagues, "Do you want to make Porto Rico our Ireland?" He "branded with all his energy this hateful notion, bred somewhere in the heathenish recesses of Asia, that one man may exercise absolute dominion over another man or one nation over another nation." He closed with this fine expression of confidence that the right will at last prevail:

> "A half million men gave up their lives that their country might stand clothed in the resplendent robes of constitutional liberty, and that we might have a government of laws and not of men for every man beneath the shining folds of the flag. All the sweet voices of our history plead with us for that great cause to-day, and I do not believe, sir, that this nation will tolerate any abandonment of that principle which has made her morally, as she is physically, without a peer among the nations."

REFORM IN PHILADELPHIA.

The result of the election that took place last week in Philadelphia is extremely encouraging. The difficulties to be overcome by the Municipal League, a body of independent voters, were very great. The machinery of the Democratic party in that city has fallen under the control of the Republican politicians, and the law providing for minority representation has thus become a means of making the power of the majority more absolute. Under this law, the Republicans named ten candidates for city judges, and the Democrats six. The leaders of both parties being in collusion, under ordinary circumstances the sixteen candidates whom they nominated would be sure of election. Relying on the advantage given them by the law, these leaders determined to have magistrates of their own stripe. The Republicans refused to renominate a judge who had ventured to hold Mr. Quay for trial on the charges growing out of the People's Bank failure, although his merits were unquestioned, and substituted another candidate for one who had shown signs of independence. The Democrats, adopting the same course, refused a renomination to two judges, one of whom had been active in seeking to bring to trial some election officers who had been accused of allowing false voting.

In addition to the advantages which the law and the collusion of their leaders gave to the politicians, they had vast resources in the shape of fraudulent votes. The actual falsification of elections is not now a serious evil in New York. No doubt a certain number of votes are cast by those having no right, but the understanding between the leaders of the opposing parties does not often go to the extent of arranging for fraudulent voting. In Philadelphia, however, the evidence is conclusive that outrages of this character have been systematically perpetrated. No one remembers an honest election, and in some wards the number of illegal votes has probably been as great as that of the legal ones. In one division of the Seventh Ward, the number of legal voters is computed at about 100; but the election officers returned 252 votes as cast at the election last year. At the election last week, last year's election officers being now in jail, the total vote was 99. In another division, which last week gave the "Quay" candidate 216, the Republican vote last year was 332.

We lately commented on the purchase of poll-tax receipts by the party managers, their practice being to have these receipts used as evidence of the qualification of the bearer to vote. Out of some 30,000 receipts of this character turned in by the Republican city committee, all but 2,557 were finally rejected by the Receiver of Taxes as invalid. So vigorous was the attack of the Municipal League on this abuse, although its representatives were not permitted to inspect the lists, that the Republican committee withdrew its applications for receipts in several wards. In the month of January, 1900, while the Municipal League was bestirring itself, about 7,500 of these poll-tax receipts were given out. In January of the previous year 21,000, and in November nearly 35,000 were issued. In spite of this reduction, it is computed that in one of the corrupt wards there are still outstanding several hundred more of these receipts than there are voters in the ward. Fortunately, sufficient evidence was procured before the late election to justify the arrest of one of the officers who had certified to the genuineness of the signatures to one of these fabricated lists, which probably led to their abandonment by the Republican politicians.

In spite of all these obstacles, and of the still more formidable one arising from the apathy or hopelessness of the well-to-do citizens of Philadelphia, the Municipal League won a notable victory. It elected four magistrates, three of whom had been refused renomination by the politicians. The Republicans, of course, elected their candidates, but by reduced majorities, the highest vote obtained by any of the candidates being about 100,000. The highest Independent vote was over 45,000, and the straight Municipal League candidates averaged 26,500; while the Democratic vote was

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about 32,000. An analysis of the vote cast shows that the Republican managers must have contributed about 15,000 votes to the Democrats, leaving the regular party vote only about 20,000. In fact, the Municipal League appears to have displaced the Democrats as the minority party in Philadelphia, and it will thus become entitled to a portion of the offices under the law giving minority parties representation.

This result shows, incidentally, that even so poor a measure as that for the representation of minorities in Pennsylvania may become available for independent voters, if they are sufficiently in earnest; at least, when the managers of the regular parties are so unprincipled as they have shown themselves in Philadelphia. It shows also what can be accomplished by a few earnest reformers who have sufficient virtue to disregard the sneers and ridicule of "practical" men, and who will make no bargains with politicians known to be corrupt. Perhaps in no city in the country is the work of reform so difficult as in Philadelphia. The control of the Republican party has been so absolute, both in the city and in the State, that the Democratic party has almost ceased to oppose it. In New York the contests between the parties are, to a considerable extent at least, genuine struggles, in which each party may make some appeal to Independent voters. But in Philadelphia the Independent voters have had to form their own organization and fight their own battles, and the fact that they have succeeded so well will encourage the friends of good government everywhere.

EQUALIZING THE STATE TAXES.

A bill has been introduced in the New York Legislature by Senator Elsberg which offers a very happy solution of the problems arising from the present system of collecting State taxes. This system is theoretically correct, and complies with the maxim that taxes should be collected with the least possible expense to the taxpayer. To put it briefly, the State Tax Commissioners now ascertain the assessed value of property in the several counties of the State, and then apportion the State tax accordingly. The local authorities then simply add their proportions of the State tax to their levies, and pay over these percentages, when collected, to the State treasury. Nothing could apparently be more equitable; and nothing could be in practice more unjust.

The mischief arises from the fact that the system makes it for the interest of every county or local taxing authority to make its assessment as low as possible. The lower its assessment, the less the proportion of taxes to be paid to the State, and the temptation to which assessors have been subjected has been irresistible. In spite of the fact that they are required by law, under the penalties of perjury, to assess all property at its fair market value, they have persistently undervalued real property to an outrageous degree. In many of the rural counties, real estate has been systematically assessed at less than one-half and sometimes at less than one-fourth of its value. Until recently there was a kind of unwritten law that real estate in New York city should be assessed at not more than two-thirds of its value, and similar customs prevailed in other cities. Hence it became necessary for the State Tax Commissioners to revise these local assessments in order to correct the grossest of the inequalities—a process in which the city of New York regularly had its assessments raised, although it is quite probable that they were more nearly just than those of most of the communities whose burdens were lightened. The task, although necessary, was invidious, and its performance has been invariably attended with complaints from every quarter.

While this abuse has attracted public attention, there is another, and more serious one, which has passed unnoticed. It arises from the taxation of bonds and mortgages. Whatever opinions may be held concerning the propriety of taxing mortgages, no one contends that they should be taxed at a higher rate than real property. But the practice of assessing real estate at less than its value unavoidably led to the over-taxation of mortgages. No assessor was willing to declare under oath that a good bond for the payment of $1,000, secured by a mortgage on real estate, was actually worth only $500, or $666. Hence whatever bonds the assessors discovered in the possession of taxpayers were listed at their face value; and as the rate of taxation is the same for both real and personal property, such mortgages were taxed at a rate materially higher than that imposed on real estate. As the mortgages discovered were generally owned by women and children and lunatics, while other owners felt justified in evading such unfair taxation, the burden imposed on helpless people has been even more onerous and inequitable than it would in any event be while real property is undervalued.

The remedy proposed by the bill to which we have referred is very simple, and whatever opposition the other tax bills before the Legislature may encounter, this one deserves general support. What the bill proposes is to make the Commissioner of the Land Office and the Commissioner of Taxes a State Board of Apportionment. This Board is to determine the proportion of State taxes in each county, "in the ratio of the gross amount of taxes for all purposes (except State and school purposes) laid in each county in proportion to all the counties, on assessed values of property, during the tax year immediately preceding the imposition of such State taxes." In other words, the State becomes altogether indifferent to the vagaries of local assessors. They may make out their counties to be rolling in wealth, or on the verge of starvation, as they please; all that the State requires of them is a statement of the amount of their tax levy, and on that amount the State collects its percentage. It goes without saying that expenditure is practically the best test of income, and the presumption is irresistible that a community which taxes itself heavily is able to bear a corresponding part of the expenses of the State government. In fact, this system is practically an income tax on the counties, with none of the possibilities of evasion which make income taxes ordinarily objectionable. No doubt communities raising large sums by taxation would complain, but it can hardly be denied that such communities are presumptively wealthy, and better able to contribute to the revenues of the State than those where the taxes are small. But it is quite possible that such communities might find that their burdens were no heavier than before, while the perennial quarrels between State and local officials concerning assessments would be terminated.

The West End Association of New York city, which advocates this bill on the ground above set forth, contends also that it will not only encourage, but almost force, economy in every tax district of the State. "If a county is economical it pays less State tax, and if it is extravagant it pays more. If the State is extravagant every county will pay more, and every taxpayer will know just how much more." Possibly this view is too hopeful as to fostering the disposition to economize in local governments, but it is certainly highly desirable that the attention of taxpayers should be constantly called to the great increase in the expense of the State government. In no way can this be more effectually accomplished than by having the cost of this government appear on every tax bill, and the measure under discussion should contain a provision to that effect. The measure also provides that every county and city shall have power to prescribe the class or classes of property upon which taxes shall be imposed. This is a desirable application of the principle of local option in taxation, and if it can be adopted it will be a great gain. But it has nothing to do with the main feature of the bill, and should be sacrificed if necessary to secure that most desirable reform.

ÉMILE FAGUET.

NEW YORK, February 21, 1900.

The French Academy, having elected a politician, a vaudevillist, and several men of the world, has at last bethought itself to

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take in a man of letters. For several days, in fact, M. Émile Faguet, already a brilliant critic and eminent professor, has found himself an Immortal to boot, thanks to the election which assigns him, beneath the cupola of the Palais Mazarin, the place held by Victor Cherbuliez.

Those who have seen, on the Boulevard St. Michel, the singular outlines of this careless and jolly bachelor, as he daily comes along, with swinging gait and elastic step, balancing his cane and whistling a tune, to seat himself on the terrace of the Café Vachette, will no doubt be surprised at the Academy's reception into its "salon" of a man so little decorative, with such a bad figure, and who so often forgets to brush his hat. Those, however, who have followed the literary movement of the past twenty years will be still more surprised that the Academy waited so long to choose a writer who is both the most intelligent and the most popular representative of contemporary French criticism.

Americans who judge of the place that certain critics occupy in French public opinion by the importance of the rôle which chance has made them play in the United States, are in danger of committing a slight error of perspective. M. Brunetière (to cite but a single name) does not absolutely exercise all the influence which many ascribe to him. Outside of the Catholic seminaries and universities and the Vatican, where he has just been lecturing so brilliantly before the cardinals, M. Brunetière has more readers than disciples. His imperious and dogmatic eloquence impresses more than it persuades the public, and his talent inspires greater admiration than his judgment does confidence. Many read or listen to him only to contradict; and what authority he possesses he has arrogated to himself rather than gained by way of recognition.

M. Faguet, on the contrary, owes his to the spontaneous suffrages of students and the literati who, in reading his books, discovered that this writer was a master, erudite, delicate, witty, full of original and, what is better worth, of just ideas. He had struck, in speaking of classic writers like Corneille and Racine, so fresh a note and so personal a tone that the attention of students was instantly arrested by this critic, so little resembling bygone professors such as Villemain and Nisard, and still less certain professors of the present day. Thus when, about 1890, the university youth, in an inexplicable fit of disorder, amused themselves by *conspuer* the masters who displeased them, amid the various cries with which they filled the amphitheatre of the Sorbonne that of "Vive Faguet!" resounded not infrequently. M. Faguet was then professor of rhetoric in a Paris lycée. The pressure of public opinion as well as the choice of the administration carried him with a rush to the University, where he was received with enthusiasm, and where, ever since, his popularity has been on the increase.

Hitherto his career had been that of the majority of French professors. Born in 1847, at La Roche-sur-Yon in La Vendée, where his father, too, had been a professor, he attended the École Normale Supérieure, where he earned a fellowship. He then taught in different provincial lycées, passing as chance promoted him from La Rochelle to Poitiers, Moulins, Clermont-Ferrand, Bordeaux, and finally Paris, which in France is the aim and goal of almost all functionary ambition. He seems to have been in no hurry to enter letters. When his first work, on 'French Tragedy in the Sixteenth Century,' appeared he was thirty-five years of age—two more than M. Brunetière, six more than M. Lemaître. But it was not this erudite book (his Doctor's thesis, too) which made him known, nor even his earliest articles as journalist and dramatic critic, produced in the intervals of his teaching, after the manner of so many French professors whom journalism has attracted and absorbed, like About, Prévost-Paradol, Sarcey, for example. His book on 'The Great Masters of the Seventeenth Century,' which came out in 1885, had, on the contrary, a serious success in University circles, and revealed to the expert the birth of a new critic. But the "great public" knew him not. To arouse the distraught and lazy attention of the great public, in France as elsewhere, something more than a good book is needful—a book which, in one way or another, excites the passions, shocks the prevailing sentiment, and provokes a bit of scandal. To obtain this result, a critic has but one means—to attack somebody violently. M. Brunetière owed his first notoriety to his vigorous campaign against naturalism. M. Lemaître was a celebrity the morning after he had written a ferocious article against the favorite novel-writer of the unlettered bourgeois, George Ohnet. In French slang this is called a slashing (*éreintement*). M. Faguet chose for his *éreintement* a man who, although he died a century ago, is more alive than many contemporaries, in virtue of the animosities he excites and the admiration he has retained—Voltaire.

Voltairianism has been one of the religions of our century. The university generation of 1848, that of Edmond About and Sarcey, the freethinking bourgeoisie, the provincial anti-clericals, fanatical and rather narrow-minded men, of whom Flaubert immortalized the type in M. Homais, have never ceased to swear by Voltaire; and it was they whom M. Faguet was to wound in touching him. Now he handled Voltaire familiarly and even brutally, scandalizing them as if by sacrilege. The book, 'The Eighteenth Century,' which contained his attack, and which appeared in 1890, tended, for the rest, in a general way, to depreciate the eighteenth century in favor of the seventeenth. He defined it as a childish century (*siècle enfant*), and taxed it with having the "impulsiveness, indiscreet ardor, curiosity, malice, intemperance, verbiage, giddiness," etc., of that age. As for Voltaire, who formed the subject of one of his principal chapters, he showed him unveiled, with his defects, his pettinesses, his meanness, while not denying a single one of his merits: "He was," said M. Faguet, "a very primitive man of his sort; he was profoundly ignorant of the distinction between good and evil. His was the dryest heart that was ever seen, and the nearest to a non-existent conscience on record."

This judgment aroused tempests. Old Voltairians were grieved by this irreverence, and some accused M. Faguet of being animated by confessional prejudices and reactionary passions. Sarcey was distressed, and Anatole France appeared surprised. Voltaire's enemies, on the other hand, uttered shouts of triumph, reckoning on a new and brilliant recruit for their party. But M. Faguet did not deserve the rage of the one or the felicitations of the other. Although by temperament and perhaps by education, he seemed rather to lean to the side on which M. Brunetière was already doing battle, he soon showed that he was a free spirit, saying what he thought true without regard to the party which applauded. At the same time that his book was denounced by Voltairians, it was interdicted in the Jesuit colleges. Since then his studies on the sixteenth century and the nineteenth have assuaged wrath, and proved to his readers, daily a greater number, that the new critic wished merely to be a critic, and to bring to the appreciation of works that impartiality and "clarity of conscience" only to be had by one who, in M. Faguet's words, "is strong enough to detach and abstract himself." This independence and freedom of mind permits him to study with the same serenity, and almost the same sympathy, men as different as Bossuet and Calvin, Proudhon and Joseph de Maistre. These qualities, too, have been the source of the authority which he has won, and the confidence shown him by a public that knows him to be not seeking to maintain theses, but to explain and define men and books.

In this he succeeds marvellously, thanks to a penetrating intellect and a gift of exposition which renders clear the obscurest systems, and comprehensible the most enigmatic men. Auguste Comte and Taine, Renan and Stendhal, have been both analyzed and defined in a manner to satisfy the most exacting. His portraiture is faithful and true, without condescension and without rhetoric, but not without an ironical indulgence. One feels that he sees justly and sees the whole. Some weeks ago, having to deliver at the École Normale a eulogy on Sarcey, he did it so completely and finely that nothing could be added to it. When Victor Cherbuliez died, M. Faguet was the only writer in the French press to produce an article on him worthy of the subject, and this article was a masterpiece.

His style has sometimes been criticised; and indeed I should not advise a foreigner to imitate it. It is, like M. Faguet himself, a little "irregular," capricious, and eccentric. Speaking of Calvin, he said: "I have a weakness for writers who have, in writing, somewhat of the spontaneous freedom of speech." In this phrase he defined his own style, which is precisely conversation: free, brisk, animated, with unexpected hits, hardy familiarities, and charming eccentricities. In this vein he chats at the Café Vachette, or in his courses at the Sorbonne, or in that brilliant weekly feuilleton in the *Journal des Débats* in which, talking of the dramatic art, he has succeeded in consoling readers for the loss of Jules Lemaître. And to this spontaneous and offhand mode of writing or speaking we owe those piquant formulas, those improvised definitions, which abound in him, and which give his style something animated and direct that few writers possess in the same degree. Thus, for instance, wishing to characterize Stendhal, he calls him "un déplacé," who is, "in the first half of our nineteenth century, as if in a house where he doesn't know his way about, and in a dress which he wasn't made to wear." And he adds: "And he nurses an ill temper, and thereby contracts a certain oddity and pretty bad manners." Of Théophile Gautier he says everything in the sentence, "He sets out from nowhere, and just there he arrives." He writes incidentally of Balzac:

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"Balzac had no wit at all." Finally, in his celebrated chapter on Voltaire, this phrase suffices to explain the emotion of the Voltairians: "The prince of wits became the god of imbeciles."

It is sometimes said, regarding contemporary French criticism, that France has no longer a Sainte-Beuve; and truly, for Sainte-Beuve is, as a matter of fact, dead. But if one chooses to observe that France possesses to-day critics named Brunetière, Lemaître, Gaston Deschamps, Gustave Lanson, and Émile Faguet, who, each in his own vein and with his special talent and temperament, have continued the work of the author of the *Lundis*, it must be allowed that France can await without too feverish impatience the rising of a new Sainte-Beuve.

OTHON GUERLAC.

Correspondence.

THE CRIME OF '73.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Col. John S. Mosby contributes to the *Nation* of February 22 extracts from letters of Hon. William E. Chandler (now one of the few Republican champions of bimetallism) and Ernest Seyd, written to the Comptroller of the Currency in 1870 or 1871, in reference to changes then contemplated in our mintage laws, most of which Congress proceeded in 1873 to enact; Mr. Chandler's letter commending the new coinage code generally, while Mr. Seyd especially addressed himself, deprecatingly, to the "abolition of the silver dollar."

These letters, as Col. Mosby explains, were part of a large volume of correspondence of the Secretary of the Treasury and the Comptroller of the Currency with other persons entitled to deference, which was laid before the House of Representatives by the Secretary, George S. Boutwell; all relating to those proposed changes in the coinage. Other portions of that correspondence are quite as instructive, but no part of it is as widely known as it should be; the communication in which the Secretary of the Treasury forwarded it to the House being now a very rare document indeed. The pendency in Congress of the gold bill gives a certain momentary vitality again to the old story of the "crime of 1873"; possibly it will win a momentary hearing for a few other selections from those views of authorities on finance and coinage which the Congress of 1873 had before it.

Several letters which the Secretary communicated to Congress were written to him by Robert Patterson, formerly Director of the Mint, and at the time connected with the Fidelity Trust Institution of Philadelphia. In one of these letters Mr. Patterson observed:

> "The silver dollar, half-dime, and three-cent piece are dispensed with by this enactment. Gold becomes the standard money, of which the gold dollar is the unit. Silver is subsidiary, embracing coins from the dime to half-dollar; coins less than the dime are of copper-nickel. The legal tender is limited to the necessities of the case."

Dr. H. R. Lindeman, another ex-Director of the Mint, writing to the Secretary, advised against a suggested increase of the size of the silver dollar, and added: "It would be better, in my opinion, to discontinue its issue altogether. The gold dollar is really the legal unit and measure of value." (He recognized that the gold standard had been enacted into law by the act of 1853.)

J. Ross Snowden, also ex-Director of the Mint, wrote a letter in which he commented on the proposed demonetization of the silver dollar. He did not favor this, but he confessed that the silver dollar had disappeared, and that, if longer coined, it would "not be used as a circulating medium, but only for cabinets."

Franklin Peale, formerly chief coiner at the Philadelphia Mint, commended the abolition of the half-dime and three-cent piece, and added: "Neither is the silver dollar desirable; its coinage should be discontinued. It is not wanted for change, which a proper silver coinage would supply."

George F. Dunning, lately Superintendent of the United States Assay Office at New York, noting the proposed abrogation of the legal-tender quality from the silver dollar, suggested that the dollar, if still issued, would be only a subsidiary coin, and would best, therefore, be reduced to 384 grains. James Pollock, who was then and for a long time had been Director of the Mint, was of the same opinion, and cited an expression to the same effect in his annual report of 1861.

Four officers of the San Francisco Mint, joining in one letter, combated the suggestions of changing the weight of the silver dollar, and advised that it be dropped entirely.

It should be remembered that the text of this discussion was a House bill dropping the silver dollar, with the silver coins smaller than the dime. The House committee which reported the bill proposed, by an amendment, the substitution of the larger coin which was actually adopted afterwards and received the popular name of "trade dollar"; whereupon the House referred the whole new scheme to the Secretary of the Treasury, with directions to obtain and report the views of authorities on finance and coinage respecting each of the proposed changes. Part of the result was the letters mentioned above and the Secretary's letter to the House transmitting them. My recollection is that most of the letters to the Secretary and the Comptroller were written in 1871. I have before me only memoranda of their contents which I made in 1896.

The only copy I have ever seen of this communication of the Secretary of the Treasury, containing the copies of letters which the House desired, was in the hands of the Hon. John P. Irish of California, who used it with much effect in speeches for the gold standard in the Presidential campaign of 1896. He said that, after a long search for the document in Washington and elsewhere, he had by chance found this one copy at the San Francisco Mint. I have heard of a very few other copies since.

BENJ. CARTER.

WASHINGTON, D. C., February 26, 1900.

Notes.

Dodd, Mead & Co. publish directly Count Tolstoy's new novel, 'Resurrection,' and 'The Transvaal Outlook,' by Albert Stickney.

Fresh announcements from the Macmillan Co. are 'Essays in the Monetary History of the United States,' by Prof. Charles J. Bullock of Williams College; 'Economic Crises,' by Edward D. Jones; and 'An Outline of Political Growth in the 19th Century,' by Edmund H. Sears.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. will soon make a volume of the late Edward Rowland Sill's prose and letters.

'The Essentials of French Grammar,' by Prof. C. H. Grandgent of Harvard, will be issued directly by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

The tiny "Beacon Biographies" of Small, Maynard & Co., Boston, have suggested a parallel series of "Westminster Biographies" which this firm will issue in conjunction with Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., London, beginning with lives of Defoe, Wesley, and Dryden. In time for the Exposition will be 'A Woman's Paris,' with directions about living, service, cabs, churches and theatres, shopping, dressmaking, etc., with illustrations.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, have in press 'The Private Memoirs of Madame Roland,' edited, after Bosc's translation, by Edward Gilpin Johnson, and 'Historical Memoirs of the Emperor Alexander I. and the Court of Russia,' by the Countess de Choiseul-Gouffier.

Stebbing's Life of Sir Walter Raleigh, which made its appearance some eight years ago, has just been reissued by Macmillan, with a frontispiece portrait of its subject after the Duke of Rutland's miniature, and fourteen pages of the abundant authorities, carefully indexed for the pertinent sections or passages—a real service to the student. There is also a page of corrigenda, for which we find it hard to account, since, if the original plates are before us, some of the corrections (as of single letters or figures in a date) could easily have been made in them.

Mr. Charles A. Keeler's 'Bird Notes Afield' (San Francisco: Elder & Shepard) is a collection of thirteen popular essays on the birds of California, followed by an appendix containing a "Key" to the Land Birds of California, and brief descriptions of the 204 species here formally treated. During the last five or six years we have had popular bird books galore, treating of the birds of the eastern United States as a whole, or of some particular sections of them, each after its own kind, mostly good and some excellent, and each no doubt filling its niche in a "long-felt want." But Mr. Keeler's is the first book of this kind relating to any part of the Pacific Coast region, and is in its way most excellent. The style is graceful, and the author writes because he has something to say. He is not only a bird-lover, but a full-fledged ornithologist, and his charming descriptions of bird-life in nature are tempered with accuracy of statement. His opening essay, "A First Glance at the Birds," is a delightful presentation of the general features of the bird fauna of California, while the other essays relate to special seasons or localities, as "A Trip to the Farallones," "A Day on the Bay Shore," "March in the Pine Woods," etc., and are each of unusual merit and interest, as regards both their ornithology and their literary style. The "Key" and descriptive list forming the appendix should be a welcome aid to those who "wish an introduction" to the "familiar birds in their native haunts" of the State of California. It is a surprise, however, to

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find such a book as this without an index.

What has been already done in some schools, and what may be looked forward to, in beautifying the school-room, is well described in a little book, 'School Sanitation and Decoration' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.), by Prof. Burrage of Purdue University, and the Supervisor of Drawing for Massachusetts, Mr. Bailey. The chapters on sanitation are rather slight, but they will serve to call the attention of committees of women's clubs (who are largely carrying on this good work) to what is essential on this subject. On color schemes for walls, and on the right pictures to choose for holding the attention of the children, the book is an excellent guide—as also in the difficult problem of what can be done for the country school, where interest is hard to awaken. But the most interesting feature of the book is the reproductions which it gives of school-work done by children of different grades under the influence of the art atmosphere to which they have been accustomed. The difference in beauty between the ordinary written exercises of the school-room and those which are here exhibited, must be seen to be believed in. It is difficult to predict what a change may be made in the hard practicalness of the American nature if the children in the schools are thus to have aroused in them a feeling for the beautiful.

By choice of a committee appointed by the town on the eve of the 250th anniversary of its incorporation, Rev. D. F. Lamson has written a 'History of the Town of Manchester, Essex County, Mass., 1645-1895,' and the town has published it. The book is not one of the best of its kind, less through the fault of the historian than through the defect of his material; Manchester not presenting so many points of historic interest as some other towns. The emphasis is where it generally is in such local histories—on the several wars to which the town has contributed men, and on ecclesiastical matters. In 1838 Edward Everett claimed for the town a survivor of Braddock's defeat, but Mr. Lamson cannot authenticate the doubtful honor. In the Revolutionary war the town seems to have done its full part, both in the preliminary Committee of Correspondence and on the embattled field. Quite as proud was its distinction in the anti-slavery time when, before the days of the Republican party, there was a Manchester Abolition Society more than one hundred strong. As in Marblehead the fishing business made way for shoe-making, so here it made way for cabinet-making, the growth of Gloucester as the great fishing centre operating in either case injuriously to the fishermen. Later the cabinet-making succumbed to the competition of the Boston market, and the town suffered a decay from which it has been only partly rallied by the influx of summer residents. The first of these was Richard H. Dana, the poet, to whom four generations of his descendants have succeeded; but to Dr. Cyrus A. Bartol is given the credit of having been the chief Uitlander, a child of light, whose wisdom in his generation has not been surpassed by the children of this world. The sea change which the name of the town has undergone began with James T. Fields. But "Manchester by the Sea" is a title which has no legal standing.

In his 'History of Trade between the United Kingdom and the United States' Mr. Sydney J. Chapman has merely outlined the subject, and, therefore, gives an impression of not having mastered the multitude of facts necessary to a full comprehension of it. It is true, in a sense, that tariff legislation in the United States has been directed against the industries of England, but it is more true that commerce has overcome such an artificial barrier, and the English market has ever been our best market. The rise of Germany as a great manufacturing nation, and the adoption of protection by the Continental Powers, have modified the ascendancy of England's commerce, but have not been able to alter its preëminence in the trade of the world. If the United States is to take the first place, as seems inevitable, it will be through its natural advantages and not through its tariff. We wish Mr. Chapman had dwelt upon the causes of the commercial power of both countries. It is not enough to quote figures, and to take a few references from Wells and Taussig, while neglecting the history of commercial policy on both continents. The all too sketchy quality of the work is evident when the later chapters are compared with those of Noyes, who understands his subject thoroughly, and maintains a just balance between the natural and the political elements involved in the development. The publishers of Mr. Chapman's book are Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London (New York: Macmillan).

Prof. W. Watson of the Royal College of Science in London has produced 'A Text-Book of Physics' (Longmans), which, by means of full explanations of matters of difficulty, sets the principles of the subject in as clear a light as a one-volume treatise could well do. Here and there it becomes almost brilliant. We notice in it, too, sundry recent items that probably here make their first appearance in a text-book. Yet we cannot say that it is the ideal treatise we are awaiting from the hands of some man born for such sort of work. In his 896 pages of fine print, the author might have found room for less meagre tables of constants and for references to the classical memoirs. In places the distinction between words and facts is not sharply drawn. Occasionally we meet with such statements as that "Thales, who lived about the commencement of the Christian era, discovered that amber, when rubbed, acquires the property of attracting light bodies." Possibly some German higher critic may have suggested that the report of Diogenes Laërtius about that discovery may refer to some later, unknown Thales. But, if so, this late Thales was not the first discoverer of a fact mentioned as well known by Plato, in that passage of the "Timæus" which almost anticipates Le Sage's conjecture about attraction; and no critic has impugned the authenticity of the "Timæus" since Schelling abandoned his doubts about it. To say that Thales of Miletus lived about the commencement of the Christian era is like saying that Roger Bacon lectures on physics in the Royal College of Science with mediæval exactitude about ancient history.

Drs. Fowler and Godlee's 'Diseases of the Lungs' (Longmans) opens with many good plates and diagrammatic drawings, showing the anatomy of the chest-walls and their contained viscera, and their relations one to the other. Following this is a chapter on general physical diagnosis, and then the diseases are taken up one by one in the usual order and minutely gone into. The chapters on tuberculosis, as was to be expected, are particularly full. The value of the open-air treatment and of sanatoria is fully recognized, but the value of the "sanatorium treatment" in addition to the fresh air does not seem to us sufficiently so. All possible processes that may occur in the lungs or elsewhere as the result of lung trouble are described at greater or less length. We were much disappointed to find no mention, even, of the value of the X-rays in the diagnosis of diseases of the lung and pleura; though there is a skiogram of the hand in the chapter on pulmonary osteo-arthropathy.

The third volume in A. Parmentier's 'Album Historique,' published in Paris by Armand Colin & Cie., deals with the 16th and 17th centuries, of which fifteen hundred engravings after contemporary prints, paintings, and other works of art or of useful manufacture, buildings, etc., exhibit the popular dress, lodging, furniture, weapons, religion, education, commerce, agriculture, industries, fine arts, etc. Many of these facsimiles or engravings could, of course, be replaced by better copies by means of modern processes, but they serve well enough the purpose of comparison for a large number of European countries. The accompanying text gives a general view of the civilization of the period, and as heretofore there are very full indexes.

An historical account of the teaching of speech to the deaf, by Dr. Alex. Graham Bell, is begun in the *Association Review* for February. The earliest attempt in this country seems to have been at Rowley, Mass., in 1679, when, according to the church records, a Mr. Philip Nelson pretended to cure a deaf and dumb boy. Francis Green of Boston, however, was "the pioneer promoter of free schools for the deaf—both in England and America, the first parent of a deaf child to plead for the education of all deaf children"; and an interesting description of his efforts to this end, beginning in 1781, is given. They included two anonymous publications, one entitled 'Vox oculis subjecta'; the other, a translation of the Abbé de l'Épée's 'Method of Educating the Deaf and Dumb.' Among the other contents are extracts from the report of Mr. Lars A. Havstad, who was sent by the Norwegian Government to inspect the schools for the deaf in this country, and a suggestive paper on the use and abuse of the memory in education.

The *National Geographic Magazine* (Washington) for February opens with a description of some geographic features of southern Patagonia, with a discussion of their origin, by M. J. B. Hatcher. Particular stress is laid on the unique position of the continental watershed, which, nearly throughout Patagonia, lies far to the eastward of the main range of the Cordilleras, and in many instances extends even beyond the lowermost foothills of the mountains. It was the ignorance of this fact which led to the boundary dispute between Argentina and Chile. A summary is given of the three years' kite work of the Weather Bureau. Nearly four thousand observations were taken at elevations of from one thousand to eight thousand feet, with the result, among other things, that "the mean rate of diminution of temperature with increase of altitude was found to be five degrees for each one thousand feet." Prof. W. M. Davis

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contributes a suggestive paper on practical exercises in geography, in which he shows how high-school scholars may be led to form, through simple observations, right conceptions of the shape, rotation, size, and orbit of the earth, latitude and longitude, and the seasons.

The only article of general interest in the *Geographical Journal* for February is Mr. Weld Blundell's account of his notable journey last year through southern Abyssinia to Khartum. He dwells upon the pitiful condition of the people under Menelik's rule. The march of an Abyssinian army (and war is chronic) means the laying waste the country through which it passes, leaving the inhabitants reduced to semi-starvation. The valley of the Blue Nile, now a part of the Egyptian Sudan, is described as an immense range of country, producing "cotton, coffee, tobacco, and iron, copper, and gold, with a healthy climate, and above all an industrious population, with nothing wanted but greater inducements and improved communication to be brought within the circle of British commercial enterprise, and developed to the highest degree of prosperity." Among the scientific results of the expedition was a collection of three hundred different species of birds, fifteen being new to science—an extraordinary exploit, since, as there was a shortness of cartridges, each bird had to be examined with a field-glass before it was shot, to make sure that it had not already been secured.

The leading article in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for February 1 is by a member of the States-General of Holland, Dr. A. Kuyper of Amsterdam, who writes on the "South African Crisis" from the fulness of his knowledge, and with the eloquence flowing from deep-rooted faith in the cause which he defends and in the ultimate triumph of justice. His candid admiration for the English character adds to his horror and regret for the moral depth to which the besetting charm of national imperialism has dragged that great people: *Bien bas choit qui était monté le plus haut.* But "through the [moral] decadence of England human progress would lose one of its finest organs." In an interesting passage the striking analogies between Roman Cæsarism and the British imperialism of to-day are pointed out with a warning finger. Dr. Kuyper believes that nothing but extirpation of the people can prevent the final freedom of the Boers. England may succeed in disarming the men, but she cannot destroy the fecundity of Boer women; and "as long as the lioness of the Transvaal, surrounded by her cubs, shall roar against England from the summit of the Drakenberg, the Boers will not be for ever subdued."

M. von Brandt, the well-known German diplomatist, writing on the same theme in the *Rundschau* for February, takes the view that a final defeat of the English would seriously harm the cause of civilization. He does not deny that the war might have been avoided without hurting the vital interests of either party, nor does he palliate the motives or the ways and means of the English Government. But he believes that the success of the Boers would give rise to graver apprehensions for the future than a dearly-bought victory of the British arms. In the latter event, he reasons, the price paid would, for a long time to come, check the imperialistic tendencies of ruthless statesmen and slacken the pace of British politics, and the world's peace would not be endangered. In the interest of humanity he wishes that, after the first military successes of the English, a disinterested Power, like the United States, may, by its mediation, put an end to the dishonorable war, on the basis of the maintenance of Boer independence and the assurance of sufficient rights to the outlander population.

It is becoming evident that the modern current in the higher education in Prussia, signal instances of which were mentioned in our recent notes on the Technische Hochschule of Berlin and the University of Göttingen, is spreading over the Empire. Not only have technical institutions in other States, like Karlsruhe (Baden) and Darmstadt (Hesse), been granted the *Promotionsrecht*, in imitation of Berlin, while Munich and Stuttgart are expected soon to follow suit, but Strassburg is planning to enlarge its university by the addition of a technical faculty, and Jena is in receipt of a gift, from members of industrial firms, for the establishment of an institute for technical physics and technical chemistry, after the pattern of Göttingen. All this is in accordance with the Emperor's wish to move the technical schools into the foreground, because "they have great problems to solve—not only technical, but also great social problems."

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, sends us a remarkably fine imperial panel photograph of the late John Codman Ropes, the military historian. The intellectual strength and honesty of the man combine with the reflective mood and attitude to make an exceedingly attractive memorial of him.

—President Eliot's annual Harvard report is exceptionally stimulating reading. It has to tell of new admission requirements which enable high-school pupils to postpone deciding whether they will go to college or not; of two-fifths of the students now achieving their A.B. in three years without any falling off in the standard; of the putting in operation of a scheme of retiring allowances for the teaching corps; of the latest (Randall Hall) experiment in cheap commons, with students for waiters. The benefactions of the year 1898-99 to the University exceeded a million and a half, but 15 per cent. of the great Edward Austin bequest, or $76,500, "went to pay the civil and military expenses of the United States Government"—thanks, perhaps, to the strenuous Harvard alumni, Roosevelt and Lodge, as much as to any two men that could be named. "The ill-considered legislation which produces such inexpedient results ought to be at once repealed," justly remarks President Eliot, who has also to record the docking of the bequest of Mrs. Carolin Brewer Croft by $7,975, "the amount of the legacy taxes paid in England." The woman question reappears in the application of a Bryn Mawr graduate to be admitted to the Law School. She was told that she might, via Radcliffe, take the course and the examinations, but neither be registered nor receive a degree; and it does not appear whether she was satisfied with the half-loaf. On the other hand, "Mrs. Williamina Paton Fleming was appointed Curator of Astronomical Photographs, and in that capacity her name appeared in the University Catalogue for 1898-99. It is believed that Mrs. Fleming is the first woman who has held an official position in Harvard University. She is well known to astronomers as the discoverer of a remarkable number of new variable stars."

—The Doubleday, McClure Co. give us in excellent book form Miss Ida M. Tarbell's 'Life of Lincoln,' begun as a series of articles in *McClure's Magazine*. The striking feature of the earlier papers was a painstaking effort to gather new facts concerning Lincoln's ancestry and his childhood. Although many of the discoveries were of slight importance, the aggregate made a story considerably softened from that which had commonly been accepted. There is much less of extreme penury in his early circumstances, and the life and early education are more nearly the average of that of pioneers in the settlement of the great West. The nature of Miss Tarbell's task naturally led to the careful saving of minutest bits of evidence, and the collection of letters and oral statements almost indiscriminately; but so much had been done in that direction before, that there is a distinct value in gathering counter statements and corrections. The chaff can be winnowed out later, and the result will ultimately be a Life searched microscopically as almost never before. The same method applied to Lincoln's later years has brought to light many letters, his own and those of collateral acquaintanceship, and in an appendix of two hundred pages the official records have yielded up the shortest and most trifling telegrams along with more important matter. The author then worked over the whole, and, by putting Nicolay and Hay, Herndon, Lamon, McClure, and others under contribution, has filled out all periods to proportionate fulness. Miss Tarbell has shown no little skill in doing this, and has used good taste as well. She has intelligently appreciated the attractive traits of Lincoln's character and made them properly dominant. A judicious reader may skip the less important details in the two octavo volumes, and keep in current sympathy with the development of a great character. This is aided by the typography, which distinguishes plainly the compiled material. The book deserves, on the whole, the popular welcome which its earlier form received, because it satisfies in an honest way the craving for details of Lincoln's wonderful career. The most important of the illustrations are a series of photograph portraits of Mr. Lincoln at different ages. The publishers' part is well done. The only noteworthy slip in proof-reading is the repetition of a whole line at the top of page 25 of the first volume.

—Those who will not admit that all knowledge is confined within the British Museum and the Bodleian Libraries, have recognized for some time that the real successor to Henry Bradshaw as the working master of English bibliographic lore is in charge of the Althorp and other bookish treasures recently housed in the beautiful Rylands Library at Manchester. In his volume on 'Early Printed Books,' Mr. Gordon Duff proved his right to this position, and his command of the new data and the new deductions which have added so materially, within the last few decades, to our knowledge of the productions and the workmanship of the fifteenth-century printers. In the Sanders lectures delivered last year at Cambridge, England, Mr. Duff took the opportunity to bring together and explain the details upon which is based our increased acquaintance with the English "fifteeners." The result is an important

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addition to the history of the beginnings of printing and bookselling in England. Blades's exhaustive volumes remain, of course, the authority of prime value, but Mr. Duff adds seven books to those enumerated by Blades, giving a total of ninety-eight printed by Caxton in England. It is now thought that three of those in Blades's list were produced after Caxton died, and that two of those printed at Bruges did not appear until after his departure for England. Two varieties of type have also been added to those represented by Blades. There can be little doubt that the list of Caxton's books is still incomplete; but, as Mr. Duff points out, it is not the mere number of books he printed between 1477 and 1491, but the fact that he edited almost every book he issued and translated twenty-five or more of them, which makes Caxton's career so remarkable.

—The probability that we know of only a part of the output from Caxton's press is very nearly a certainty as regards his successor, Wynkyn de Worde. De Worde printed at least sixty-eight small tracts, in addition to his larger books; of forty-seven of these, only a single copy, often imperfect, is known to be in existence. The manner in which these books have been preserved is well illustrated by the 'Sarum Horal,' printed by William de Machlinia about 1485. Eight leaves of this little service-book exist at Oxford, seven are in the British Museum, four at Lincoln, and two at Cambridge. All of these came from worn-out copies of the book which had been used as waste by a contemporary binder in stiffening the covers of other books. Competition in the printing trade began in London in 1480, and the result was a very marked immediate improvement in the quality of Caxton's work. Presses had been set up at Oxford and at St. Albans a year or two earlier, and before 1501 there were at least six master-printers who had tried to supply the English demand for books. Their efforts seem to have been unsuccessful, for many commissions were sent to printers at Paris, Venice, Rouen, and elsewhere for books wanted by the English buyers. They also had to meet the competition of the stationers, who imported books printed to their order and with their imprint, and also of travelling salesmen from the Continent, who seem to have distributed considerable numbers of foreign printed books in the provincial towns.

—The author of 'Kraft und Stoff,' recently deceased, at the age of seventy-five, was not only a thoroughly scientific man, but also an exceedingly interesting personality. The healing art seems to have been a sort of professional patrimony of his family: his grandfather, father, uncle, his oldest brother George, and he himself were medical practitioners. There was also in their mental constitution a rich poetic vein, an heirloom of the Frankish-Alemannic Odenwälder, still famous for the wealth and beauty of their traditional sagas. George was only twenty-one when he wrote a tragedy, entitled "Danton's Tod: Dramatische Bilder aus der Schreckenszeit," a work revealing great imaginative power and replete with vigorous and vivid descriptions of the "Reign of Terror," but with the lack of artistic moderation peculiar to the productions of the transitional storm-and-stress period in German literature. There is no doubt that he would have achieved distinction as a man of letters if he had not died at the age of twenty-five, as a political fugitive in Switzerland, just as he was beginning a course of lectures on comparative anatomy at the University of Zurich. Also his sister Luise, who was fifty-one years old when she died on November 28, 1877, attained considerable celebrity as a poet and novelist, and, by her popular treatise on 'Die Frauen und ihr Beruf,' which has passed through half-a-dozen editions, became one of the most efficient social reformers and pioneers in opening new fields of industrial activity to women in Germany. A younger brother, Alexander, still living, professor at Valenciennes, and afterwards at Caen in France, has embodied the results of his special studies of English and French literature in two works, 'Geschichte der Englischen Poesie' and 'Französische Literaturbilder,' each in two volumes.

—Ludwig Büchner, the fifth of seven children, and as a boy remarkable for his clear intellect, tender feeling, and lively fancy, showed in early youth a strong love and critical appreciation of literature, and it was expected that this latter proclivity would determine his future career and secure for him a prominent place near the summit of Parnassus. His younger brother Alexander and his sister Luise had already appeared before the public with some success as authors when Ludwig suddenly produced his 'Kraft und Stoff,' which was at once accepted by the Frankfort publisher Meidinger and made a great sensation. A fierce controversy arose over it, and the wiseacres in the senate of the University of Tübingen put their heads together and decided that the author of such a work should not be permitted to lecture in the medical faculty of that institution, and that the *venia legendi* should be withdrawn; thus furnishing another illustration of the inviolability of German academic freedom as expounded by Prof. Münsterberg. It is not possible here to follow Büchner's scientific career from this first brilliant success to the time of his death. There is, however, a collection of his lyrical poems and dramas and critical essays entitled 'Der neue Hamlet,' which reveals another feature of his intellectual character, and to which we call attention because it was published under the pseudonym of "Karl Ludwig," and is therefore not generally known as his literary production, although it contains the fragment of an autobiography. The title of the volume is well chosen, for there was in his nature, as here disclosed, a strong conflict between the born idealist and the philosophic materialist, which often gave him pause and made him think that he had missed his calling. His last two works, just issued by Emil Roth in Giessen, are 'Am Sterbelager des Jahrhunderts: Blicke eines freien Denkers aus der Zeit in die Zeit,' and 'Im Dienste der Wahrheit: Ausgewählte Aufsätze aus Natur und Wissenschaft.' The first of these volumes is a second revised and enlarged edition sent by the author to the press just before his death, and adorned with his portrait as frontispiece. The second volume was found among Büchner's posthumous papers, and consists of fifty-one articles, which had appeared in different periodicals from 1891 to 1899 and been arranged by him chronologically for publication under the title they now bear.

—Vittorio Bersezio, whose death at Turin was announced last week, was one of the most eminent Italian men of letters of the past half-century. Born near Coni in 1830, he displayed such precocity that at the age of eleven he wrote the *libretti* of lyric plays, which were performed. Going, while still a lad, to Turin, he began to write for the press, and was at different times in the employ of Valerio and Brofferio, the radical leaders. When the Revolution broke out, in 1848, he enlisted and served in the campaign in Lombardy. Then he resumed his literary work, writing for several journals, from the dignified *Rivista Contemporanea* to the satirical *Fischietto*. His "Political Profiles," sketches of the leading Italian public men of the early fifties, gave him a reputation. But mere journalism did not content him. He wrote a series of novels, ('La Famiglia,' 'L'Amor di Patria,' 'L'Odio,' etc.) which were successful in Italy, and were translated, some of them at least, into French and German. He also tried his hand at writing plays, of which "Micca d'Andormo," "Romulus" (acted by Salvini), "Le Pasque Veronesi," and "Il Perdono" were written in literary Italian, and several others, more popular still, in Piedmontese dialect. Finally, he devoted himself to writing the Life of Victor Emanuel II., which he published in eight volumes (1878-'95), under the title 'Trent' Anni di Vita Italiana'; a work too diffuse to rank among the first, but still full of valuable matter, with the impressions and reminiscences at first hand of an observer of the period described. In these days, when one short story in a magazine is supposed to confer perpetual fame on its author, it is wholesome to record, even briefly, the career of Bersezio, who excelled as journalist, novelist, playwright, and historian, but always went forward in search of higher achievement, and never contented himself with applause for work completed.

—In writing on Bábar for the 'Rulers of India' series (Clarendon Press), Prof. Stanley Lane-Poole deals with a career which centres about Samarkand quite as much as about Delhi. The early ambition of Bábar was to found an empire in the valleys of the Oxus and Jaxartes. He bent his course to the southward only after repeated failures in the land of his birth had proved that the route to India offered the line of least resistance. The life of this hero and conqueror falls, then, into very distinct sections. For the historian of India only the last twelve years are available, while the biographer finds in Bábar's earlier struggles and vicissitudes a subject which, though of comparatively little political consequence, is full of dramatic personal interest. No leader of Islam during the first century which followed the death of the Prophet showed more dash and intrepidity in spreading the Koran than Bábar displayed during the twenty years, 1494-1514, in his attempt to create for himself a state after his own heart. When every effort had failed, he changed his purpose with the utmost versatility, and in less than a decade brought millions upon millions of Hindus beneath his sway. Bábar is eminently a hybrid character, and Prof. Lane-Poole, in a single paragraph, thus brings out the complexity of the elements which he represents: "He is the link between central Asia and India, between predatory hordes and imperial government, between Tamerlane and Akbar. The blood of the two great scourges of Asia, Chingiz and Timúr, mixed in his veins, and to the daring and restlessness of the nomad

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Tatar he joined the culture and urbanity of the Persian. He brought the energy of the Mongol, the courage and capacity of the Turk, to the listless Hindu; and, himself a soldier of fortune and no architect of empire, he yet laid the first stone of the splendid fabric which his grandson Akbar achieved." No reference to Bábar, however fragmentary, should pass over unmentioned the celebrated autobiography which he left to be edited by his son Humáyún, and which has furnished all writers on his period with the best part of their facts. He wrote his memoirs in his native tongue, Turki, but the work was soon translated into Persian and exists in many codices. The English translation by Leyden and Erskine has put within the reach of those who are unlearned in Oriental languages one of the most delightful books of adventure ever written by a conqueror. Prof. Lane-Poole has drawn largely on this prime source for the materials of his excellent handbook.

—Part ii., vol. xxvii., of the Transactions of the Asiatic Society of Japan, contains matter of great interest to students of the Japanese language, of the Romanization of Asiatic tongues, and of the history of printing. It is a study of the work of the Jesuit Missions Press in Japan, the result of the researches of Sir Ernest Satow in the public libraries of England and the Continent, concerning those books printed in Japan at the end of the sixteenth and the beginning of the seventeenth centuries. Mr. Satow came to Japan in the early sixties as a student-interpreter. He is now British Minister in the Japanese Empire. In a pamphlet privately printed he gave the full results of his researches up to the year 1888, but since coming to Japan he has been fortunate enough to discover two other works printed on the same press, probably at Nagasaki. The first of these is an abridgment of the 'Tai-Héi-Ki,' a celebrated historical work of the fourteenth century. The second is a small volume of fifty-eight leaves printed in Roman type, and bearing the imprint "In Collegio Iaponico Societatis Iesu, Anno 1600," and is identical in substance, but not in type, with that numbered eleven in his pamphlet, and preserved at Rome; but the one edition in Chinese characters and *kana* script was for the use of native converts, and the other in Roman letters for missionaries not familiar with Chinese characters or the Japanese syllabary. It is a compend of Roman Catholic theology and doctrine, and was evidently intended for the Samurai or educated classes. The spelling of the Romanized Japanese words is that of the Portuguese grammar and lexicography of the period. After five pages of introduction, Mr. Satow gives a glossary of six pages, a photolithographic reproduction of the title-page of the book, and sixty-one pages of its text. Japanese versions are here found of the Lord's Prayer, the Apostles' Creed, and the Ten Commandments, which, with the articles of the Roman ritual, may be useful for comparison with modern translations. It is an interesting question whether the Jesuit missionaries in Japan, some of whom had also been in Korea with the Japanese army of invasion, took the hint for the use of movable or "living" type from the Koreans, with whom they had been common centuries before they were known in Europe. The first ascertained use of movable type by the Japanese was in 1598. A private reprint of Sir E. Satow's paper has just been deposited in the Boston Public Library.

GRAHAM'S SOCIAL LIFE OF SCOTLAND.

The Social Life of Scotland in the Eighteenth Century. By Henry Grey Graham. London: Adam & Charles Black. 1899.

The social and economic sides of history are comparatively new subjects of inquiry and description. Ancient chroniclers and modern chroniclers, too, till the present century, were so much occupied with political events and with the personal incidents relating thereto, as hardly to notice the modes, habits, and practices of daily life, or to describe the beliefs and notions which men entertained. If they wrote of what passed in their own time, such matters were too familiar to seem to need description. If they wrote of the past, they held it beneath the dignity of history to take account of such trivialities. Macaulay was one of the first to depart from this hallowed usage, and the famous sketch of English social life in the time of Charles the Second with which his History of England opens, has stirred many authors to imitation, so that the English are now pretty familiar with the ways of their ancestors from Tudor times to the present. Mr. McMaster and Mr. Edward Eggleston are among the American writers who have trodden the same path with success. For Scotland not much has been done, save in one or two of Walter Scott's novels, where incidentally the features of social life are touched upon. The subject lay out of the beaten tracks; and though there was a considerable Scottish literature in the last century, from which an impression of Scottish life might be drawn, the ornaments of that literature, with the exception of Allan Ramsay and Robert Burns, were all Edinburgh men, and reproduced the manners of their city rather than of their country. However, there comes now a new writer, a Scotchman, and indeed (as we gather) a Scottish clergyman, who gives us in these two solid volumes a large mass of information about his country in the eighteenth century, the first century in which that turbulent little country had enjoyed comparative peace, and the opportunities which peace gives of advancing in material prosperity.

He covers a good deal of ground, passing in review the society and manners of the rural districts, those of the cities, and especially of Edinburgh and Glasgow—the latter a very small town past the middle of the century; the land system, with the relations of rural classes and care of the rural poor; the Church and the various dissenting bodies which broke off from it and went on apart from it; education in schools and universities, crime and social order, the progress of industry and trade. On each of these topics a great variety of matter, often curious, has been brought together with commendable diligence, so that the book is really a valuable repertory of facts, most of them drawn from books which, in this country at least, can hardly be procured. The merit of the work lies in the abundance of the facts collected. It is clearly written, with few efforts at literary display; and (except perhaps in the ecclesiastical part) it betrays no bias either national or sectional. It might perhaps have been improved by the introduction here and there of summarizing paragraphs, presenting the generalized conclusions to which, in the author's view, the facts he has collected point. However, the main thing was to bring together the facts. The reader, having an ample store of them here provided, can generalize for himself at his pleasure.

Mr. Graham justly remarks on the great unlikeness of Scotland to England at the time of the Union. To the traveller of to-day, the two countries seem to present few points of difference. The dialect of the common folk is no doubt unlike that of southeastern England, but not more unlike than is that of Lancashire or Devon. The landscape is generally rougher or sterner in its character, and the towns are built rather of stone than of brick. The parish churches are less picturesque, for the Presbyterian Reformers dealt less tenderly with the old fabrics in Scotland than the Episcopalian reformers did in England, and the country was so much poorer that the churches were at all times inferior. But perhaps the most patent difference between the countries is that in Scotland it is chiefly whiskey, in England chiefly beer, that is the drink of the people—a difference which Mr. Graham shows to be not very ancient. These are trifling divergencies when compared with the broad and striking contrast which the poverty and squalor of Scotland, its plain form and rigid practice of religion, its social habits and ideas, furnished to the wealth and comfort of England, to its easy-going ecclesiastical ways, to its different ideals of life and thought, as these two countries stood in A. D. 1707, when the Treaty of Union welded them into one kingdom, and when, according to Mr. Graham, the diversity of speech was so great that Englishmen and Scotchmen scarcely understood one another. The fact is, that in 1707 Scotland was one of the most backward countries in Europe in every respect but one. Her population was very small, scarcely exceeding a million, and was almost entirely rural. It was extremely poor, for only a small part of the land was tilled, and the industries were insignificant. There was little trade and practically no shipping. But the race was highly intelligent and energetic, having in the two preceding centuries produced a surprising number of men of literary distinction; and the provision of education for the people, albeit scanty, and far inferior to that which the enlightened policy of John Knox and his friends of the great reforming era had planned, was yet better than that which existed in England, or in most parts of Continental Europe. Accordingly, when peace was assured in the Lowlands after 1689—for the Jacobite rebellions of 1715 and 1745 caused only temporary perturbations—and when the union with England in 1707 had thrown open trade with the English colonies, and brought the two parts of the island into closer commercial relations with one another, there began a progress which, slow at first, had in twenty or thirty years increased the value of property, raised wages as well as rents, and given a stimulus to every department of national life.

The steps by which this took place, and the remarkable parallelism in the development of industry and trade on the one hand and the growth of theological enlightenment on

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the other, are well traced by Mr. Graham. He notes one fact of interest to tourists in Scotland. In the first half of the eighteenth century it was one of the barest and dreariest parts of Europe, the old forests having been, especially in the Lowlands, almost entirely cut down for firewood, so that house timber was hardly procurable. But about 1760 the now more progressive landowners began to plant trees on a great scale, and the large woods which may now be seen in all parts of the Lowlands, except, of course, on the higher and steeper hills, are entirely due to the taste for forestry which then grew so popular. Scotland has to-day less of the aspect of a wooded country than the centre and west of England, because few clumps of trees stand about in the fields, and there are hardly any hedgerow trees at all. But the woods are both extensive and fine, though Scotland must admit one serious inferiority to England: she has no pieces of really old forest, dating from the Middle Ages. There is nothing more beautiful in England than the sylvan scenery of the New Forest in Hampshire, of Wychwood Forest in Oxfordshire, of Savernake Forest in Wiltshire, of Sherwood Forest in Nottinghamshire, not to speak of others which, like Needwood in Staffordshire, have preserved fewer fine trees. In Scotland the traveller finds nothing to compare with these, nor indeed any relics of really ancient wood, save here and there among the huge clumps of fir trees in the Highland glens.

Religion and ecclesiastical affairs have been a conspicuous factor in Scottish life ever since the Reformation of the sixteenth century. It was in Scotland far more than in England a really popular movement, and left a deeper impress, which was still further deepened by the struggle against prelacy from 1638 till 1690. Calvinistic theology has done so much to mould the character of the people that Mr. Graham very properly devotes to this part of his subject a large share of his space. He paints in colors perhaps almost dark the fanaticism, the dogmatism in matters of belief, and the vehement intolerance of the Presbyterian masses in the opening years of the century—phenomena which were the natural result of the ferocious persecution to which the Covenanters had been subjected by the later Stuart kings. He remarks, with perfect truth, that, so far from the clergy having led or terrorized the laity, as Mr. Buckle (who was sometimes almost as ignorant as he was self-confident and positive) supposed, the clergy were really controlled by the laity, who displayed an interest in theology greater than that of any other contemporary European people, and hardly to be paralleled even in rural New England. He describes the gradual decline of Calvinistic stringency which went on from 1720 to 1770, and which, in the Presbyterian Church established by law, was accelerated by the growth of the Seceders and other Dissenting bodies. All the free churches in Scotland have arisen, not from any spirit of change, but from adherence to old ideas and customs. The same remark has been made of most of the Dissenters in Russia. The Cameronians held to the Covenants of the seventeenth century, and disapproved the Established Church because it had not renewed those Covenants. The Seceders of 1737 quitted the church in protest against the intrusion of ministers into parishes by lay patronage against the will of the people; and the later and greater Secession of the Free Church in 1843, commonly called the Disruption, had the same cause.

As the seceding bodies were those which clung most tenaciously to the Calvinistic dogmas and the ancient simplicity of worship, their departure gave a freer course to latitudinarianism in the state church, so that by 1780 no small part of its more educated clergy as well as laity were deemed to be virtually Arians or Socinians. With these men, of whom Dr. Blair and the historian Robertson, principal of Edinburgh University, are the persons now best remembered, and with a knot of cultivated lawyers and some university professors, such as Adam Smith and Thomas Reid, began the brilliant literary era of modern Scotland, which lasted down till, in the first decades of the nineteenth century, the influence of London drew the bulk of Scottish literary talent away from Edinburgh, leaving comparatively few men of science and learning in Scotland, except those who were kept there by university chairs. And this epoch (1770-1810) was, by an interesting coincidence, that which saw the meridian of Scottish poetry in Burns, and the dawn of Scottish romantic fiction in Walter Scott. Before it closed, a change came over the spirit of the Scottish church. The so-called "Evangelical Revival," beginning about 1790, a little later than it had begun in England, drove out the "moderate" theology of Robertson and his contemporaries, and it was not till about 1870 that the influence of German and Dutch theologians, and especially of the new school of Biblical criticism, began to tell powerfully on Scotland. At present that school is dominant there, and the Scottish Presbyterian clergy stand amazed at the stringent orthodoxy and intolerance of critical methods which they note in the Presbyterians of the United States and of Ireland.

It is in this part of his book that Mr. Graham may perhaps be thought to fall rather below the level of an objective and dispassionately philosophical historian. Recounting with grim pleasure the instances, numerous enough, of bigotry, superstition, and harshness among the fanatical and ultra-orthodox ecclesiastics and laity of the first half of the eighteenth century, he makes too little allowance for the causes which had made them what they were, and does less than justice to the earnestness and devotion which half redeemed their faults. Puritanism, with all its drawbacks, has been a potent force in stimulating Scottish intellect and strengthening Scottish character.

There is much else in the book that well deserves attention and commendation, and many of the facts it notes are full of significance. Though Scotland was so rude, there was far less highway robbery there than in England; and the much greater mildness of the criminal law was accompanied by a much greater rarity of crime (except infanticide). But serfdom among coal-miners and salt-workers lasted down till 1799. Political liberty scarcely existed, and the representative system was a farce. There was very little coin in circulation, and the roads were impassable till after the middle of the century. Indeed, it would be hard to imagine a region more unlike the prosperous industrial lowlands of to-day than Scotland was one hundred and fifty years ago. To have brought out so clearly and so fully the condition of his country, and the beginnings of the process by which she emerged from her misfortunes and became one of the most progressive and cultivated parts of Europe, entitles Mr. Graham to the gratitude of historical students, and enables us to recommend his book to American readers as one of the best of its kind that have appeared for a good many years.

SKRINE'S HEART OF ASIA.

The Heart of Asia; A History of Russian Turkestan and the Central Asian Khanates from the Earliest Times. By Francis Henry Skrine, formerly a member of H. M. Indian Civil Service, and Edward Denison Ross, Ph.D., Professor of Persian in University College, London. London: Methuen & Co.; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 1899. Pp. xi+444.

There has long been much need of a scholarly yet readable account within reasonable limits of space of the Russian advance in Central Asia and of the past and present condition of the Turkoman tribes. The older history of Central Asia, too, has been a picturesque blank for most of us. Vague ideas of the conquests of Alexander, of the Oxus and Jaxartes—*amnes fabulosi*—of Prester John and Tamerlane with his "pampered jades of Asia," of sultans of Casgar from the 'Arabian Nights' and "Merou's bright palaces and groves" from 'The Veiled Prophet of Khorasan,' have jarred against newspaper paragraphs about Merv and its mervousness, Afghan and Pamir boundary squabbles, trans-Caspian petroleum, and railways to China. We have had books of travel, more or less untrustworthy and biassed; we have had Sir Henry Howorth's great 'History of the Mongols,' and others of lesser repute; Col. Yule illumined Marco Polo and Cathay; ten years ago Lord (then Mr.) Curzon's 'Russia in Central Asia' appeared; but there was nothing by which the ordinary reader could arrange his jumbled ideas and string his facts, real and ideal, on a thread solid enough to carry them. 'The Heart of Asia' undoubtedly fully meets this need. It sums up past history and present condition with admirable thoroughness and clearness. The amount of detail which its learned authors have packed into a single volume is equalled only by the scholarly accuracy which they show, and the readableness which they have attained. The sources upon which they base are excellent. Both Prof. Ross and Mr. Skrine have personal knowledge of Central Asia; and Skrine's part of the work, the description of government, of development of railways, of commerce, and of the social life, is from his own observations throughout. Prof. Ross has made the fullest use of Russian and Mongol authorities, which in itself would give the book high value; he has used at first-hand the Arabic and Persian chroniclers, though with a leaning to the Persian which neither the scientific historian nor the Arabist will much approve—the Persian version of at-Tabari, for example, can have no authority beside the original—but which is excusable in a professor of Persian; students of the later Roman Empire generally find it expedient to get behind Gibbon to his sources, and D'Herbelot is respectable but

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antiquated. But such points are of slight importance; the thoroughness and first-hand quality of Prof. Ross's work are a credit to English scholarship.

The first part of the book consists of a history of Central Asia from the earliest time to the Russian occupation. From the oldest mention of Bactria in the inscription of Behistun the story is briefly traced through the conquests of Alexander and the vicissitudes of his successors, through the Huns, the Parthians, and the Romans, and the Sasanides to the Arab conquest. From that point much greater detail is given, and what may fairly be claimed to be a hitherto unwritten chapter in the history of Islam is unrolled before us. The work of the great conqueror Qutayba b. Muslim is given at length, and then the story of eastern Islam is told, as it might have been followed from the basins of the Oxus and the Jaxartes. The ground covered is in part common to all Muslim historians, but the standpoint is novel. In other books we see the Arab waves of conquest flowing out into darkness among races we know nothing of; some echoes of China and of wandering Turkoman tribes reach us, but it is as of the land beyond the mountains. Our thoughts bear most upon the valleys of the Euphrates and the Nile and upon the Inner Sea. And when, in later times, there come the waves of Mongol invasion—the Seljuqs, Chingiz Khan, Timur Leng—they break out of darkness we know not how. What they are, whence they come, why they come, are mysteries. But in this book all that is clear. We are put among those very tribes in their own camping-grounds. The tangled skein of their genealogies is unravelled. The causes of their migrations, this way and that, are made plain. We see Chinese and Muslim envoys meeting in diplomatic warfare at their courts, and the Great Wall of China turning them from the east to flood the west. Then the long course of Russian conquest begins, and is traced in its development of fatal necessity till Geok Teppe falls and the boundary of three empires is fixed in the Pamirs.

The only pity in all this is that the great compression of space produces a false feeling of Central Asian life as though it had consisted of nothing but wars and rumors of wars, of alarms and excursions. We have to remember that, from time to time through it all, the weavers were busy in Samarcand, Muslim law was expounded, endless commentaries on the Quran written, and poetry and art flourished. Otherwise it is as though we had a history of the squabbles of the Italian republics which took no thought that Dante and Petrarch and Boccaccio were living then.

The second part of the book is by Mr. Skrine, and is a description of Central Asia as he has seen it, and of the work which Russia is accomplishing there. The railway system is traced in detail, and the history is given of how it has been built up until now a gap of only 450 miles separates it from that of India. The province of Transcaspia is described, with the method of government and of administering justice which has been worked out for the nomad Turkomans. The railway is then followed from Askabad to Merv, thence to the protected native state of Bokhara, and finally to Samarcand. These are names full of old romance, and all the magic has not passed from them under Mr. Skrine's pen. Samarcand itself is a word to conjure with. Alexander was here, and here he killed Clitus; Timur lies buried here under his slab of dark-green jade. Naturally, this part of the book has not the original interest of Prof. Ross's work. Travellers have been there before and have told what they saw; no one before has written the history from beginning to end. Yet Mr. Skrine's impressions have an interest of their own. The Russians, for him, are not Mr. Kipling's Bad People, nor does he think with Vámbéry that their government is tyrannous and a failure. He is almost enthusiastically pro-Russian, believes that Russia has been compelled by its circumstances to advance, and that it has no designs upon India. As to this, the latest events on the Persian Gulf and the Afghan frontier may hint a doubt. Much that he says has value for us in our present straits. Some things illuminate especially the logical impossibility of our position. For example, he quotes Skobeleff: "Our Central Asian policy recognizes no pariahs. Herein lies our superiority over the English." And Kurapatkin: "The assumption of sovereignty over alien nationalities must not be attempted without very serious deliberation, inasmuch as such become, on annexation, Russian subjects, children of the Tsar, and invested with every privilege enjoyed by citizens of the empire." All this only illustrates the old fact that the more autocratic a government, the better it can assimilate foreign elements; and the less citizenship amounts to, the more easily it can be bestowed. The value of Roman citizenship had fallen low when it was extended over the Roman world, and the value of Russian citizenship must be equally low when it can be given to the Tekke Turkomans. When the English Parliament has vanished, the Indian "fellow-subject" may become a full British subject, but it may be a question if his status will be much raised by that. And when the American Congress has finally ceased from troubling, then, perhaps, a great white Tsar at Washington may bless subject children of half-a-dozen shades invested with every privilege that will be left to American citizens.

Again, here are two passages in no connection, but interesting when brought into connection: "The Romans had entered on the career of foreign conquest which seems inevitable in the case of a powerful republic." This is somewhat cynical, and also commonplace; but what about this? "For communities which have arrived at a high pitch of civilization, conquest is an anachronism, and assimilation with a subject race an impossibility." Either no powerful republic is highly civilized, or it is inevitable for every powerful republic to attempt the anachronistic. This is an exercise in formal logic, but it has also some claim to consideration as sense.

To return to Mr. Skrine, he would gladly see an Anglo-Russian alliance, but he finds two great obstacles: there can be no permanent alliance between an autocracy and a system of popular government; nor between a system of close protection and a system of free trade. Here, too, is sense: *de te fabula narratur.*

Of detailed criticism of this book, there can be little; it is far too good to have faults picked in it. Yet the following points may be worthy of consideration in the new edition, which we trust will soon come. On pp. 131, 133, we have the old story that Omar Khayyām, Nizām al-Mulk, and Hasan b. as-Sabbāh—the Old Man of the Mountain—were schoolfellows together. If Prof. Ross will look at the matter again, he will probably find that the story is chronologically impossible — Nizām al-Mulk was assassinated, an old man of 77, in A. H. 485, Omar died in A. H. 515, and Hasan in A. H. 518—and that the supposed evidence for it is very late. The note on p. 366 gives the impression that the Shi'ites have no *Sunna*. That is not so; they have a *Sunna*, but it is different from that of the so-called Sunnites. As to the note on p. 35, it must be a distinctively Persian idea that "Hijra" refers to Muhammad's *separation* from his family. The root permits that interpretation, but the word is regularly taken as meaning *migration, i. e.*, Muhammad's migration from Mecca to Medina. We should be glad to know Prof. Ross's authorities for his view. The character assigned on p. 69 to the Umayyad Khalifa Omar b. Abd al-Aziz is very dubious; Prof. Ross might consult Von Kremer's 'Culturgeschichtliche Streifzüge.' On p. 93, line 19, Ustādsīs should be read for Khazim; a volume reference is needed in the note on p. 225; p. 240, foot, Amu Darya should be read for Sir Darya, and a reference would be in place to De Goeje's paper on the old course of the Oxus. The first sentence on p. 388 is obscure to unintelligibility—its face-meaning is the opposite of what is wanted. On the religious tolerance, and even anti-Muslim tendency, of Chingiz Khan and Timur it is possible to refer now to the paper by Smirnow in the *Actes du onzième Congrès Internat. des Orientalistes*, troisième Sect., pp. 143-157. Joseph Stylites on p. 26 should be Joshua the Stylite, so far as that unknown author has any name for us.

The book has 34 excellent illustrations. Nineteen of these are from sketches by Verestchagin, and the rest from photographs. There is a very good general map of Central Asia, and a sketch-map of the Russian advance. A special map to illustrate the Muslim conquest and mediæval times would be of service; Spruner-Menke is not always at hand.

A Thousand Days in the Arctic. By Frederick G. Jackson. Harper & Bros. 1899. 8vo, pp. xxiv, 940. Maps and illustrations.

The expedition of which this is the diary, was fitted out by Mr. Alfred C. Harmsworth, the well-known English newspaper proprietor. Its object was originally Polar exploration; but when the supposed northward extension of the Franz-Josef archipelago was disproved, and the expected base of operations thus shown to be non-existent (much to the credit of all concerned) work was not discontinued. The author of this volume and his companions devoted themselves most successfully to the survey of the archipelago, the recording of meteorological and magnetic observations, and the exploration of the natural history and geology of the region.

This work was carried on under difficult conditions. In addition to the usual discomforts of the Arctic regions—low temperature, storms, darkness, and isolation—the swift currents between the islands kept the ice constantly in motion, while rapid and extreme changes of temperature, from intense

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frost to the slush and humidity of a sudden thaw, were experienced to an extent not known in other parts of the Arctic. The expanses of open water due to these changes, on the other hand, were beneficial in attracting animal life, especially polar bears and walrus, which gave the explorers frequent opportunities for hunting and large supplies of fresh meat, to which their very general exemption from ill health was probably due. The number of bears killed the first year was over sixty, but the second year only twenty-five, and the third year only twelve, showing, as the author justly remarks, that hunting had greatly reduced their numbers, and that if it were continued it would take but a few years to kill off all the large game of the vicinity.

The expedition sailed from the Thames July 12, 1894, on the *Windward*, a bark-rigged vessel with very feeble auxiliary steam-power, and drawing somewhat less than eighteen feet when loaded. They proceeded to Archangel for supplies, and then to Yugor Strait, where thirty dogs were taken aboard. After some delay, due to grounding on a mud-bank, the party finally sailed for their destination August 16, and reached Cape Flora, Northbrook Island, September 7. This is near the southern and western end of the group, and winter quarters were established with the utmost practicable speed. The season proved early, and, the *Windward* being unable to get away, her crew were obliged to winter, adding considerably to the responsibilities of the commander of the expedition.

The exploring party consisted of Mr. Jackson, Dr. R. Koettlitz, surgeon and geologist; Harry Fisher, naturalist; J. F. Child, mineralogist; and four men. Except the commander, none of them had had any Arctic experience, and his had been but moderate. A novelty was the employment in their sledging of three small Russian ponies, which proved to be superior to dogs, and are regarded by Jackson as eminently adapted for Arctic work. Two sledge journeys were made in the spring of 1895, and on the 3d of July the *Windward* was released from the ice, and started on her homeward voyage. A little later, explorations were attempted in a whaleboat, and the party, after some successful work, were very near disaster in stormy weather, but finally reached the winter quarters in an exhausted state. A very singular phenomenon was observed on the 30th of July, when the sky, between nimbus clouds and the horizon, seemed to be filled with white non-luminous strips resembling laths, irregularly distributed, and for which no explanation is even suggested. Another sledge journey was undertaken in March and April, 1896, when some new land was discovered and much surveying done.

On June 17, 1896, the great event of the expedition occurred. A man was seen on the floe three or four miles south southeast from Cape Flora, and Jackson hurried to meet him. It proved to be Nansen, and his faithful companion Johansen was not far off:

"They had a lump or two of evil-looking walrus meat and two or three draggled-looking looms (guillemots) in their kayaks, which was all the food they had with them, poor chaps. . . . . A more remarkable meeting than ours was never heard of. Nansen did not know I was in Franz-Josef Land, as I did not leave England till a year after he started on his expedition, and I had not the smallest idea he was then within hundreds of miles of me; in addition to that, Nansen was very uncertain indeed as to what part of the world he was in" (p. 513).

Jackson believes that if their ammunition had held out, Nansen and Johansen might have lived through another winter in Franz-Josef Land, but that they could not have crossed in their leaky canvas canoes the belt of open water and moving ice which separates the western extreme of the group from the nearest part of Spitsbergen by a distance of more than one hundred and sixty miles. In this opinion we think him entirely justified. In fifteen months the Norwegians had travelled seven hundred miles, or an average of fifty miles or less per month, over comparatively solid ice. Allowing for storms and other delays, three miles a day was a good average for their progress when actually travelling. At this rate the minimum time of crossing to Spitsbergen would have been fifty-three days, if we take no account of wind or currents. They could not have carried food for this period in their canoes, nor is it likely that they could have supplied themselves by the way. In fact, the meeting with the English party at Cape Flora must be regarded as providential, and, humanly speaking, the salvation of the two wanderers from the North.

On the 26th of July the *Windward* arrived with news, provisions, and other supplies, but, to Jackson's disappointment, instead of more ponies some useless reindeer were sent, which died almost immediately. On the 7th of August she left, taking Nansen and his companion to Vardo. Another winter passed, and in March, 1897, another sledge trip was made, reaching latitude 80° 56′ and involving the usual hardships. The mass of the western land of the archipelago was encircled by the explorers' track. The last of the faithful ponies succumbed on this occasion. Open water, slush, and wet were the cause of much discomfort and delay. On the 8th of May they reached Cape Flora on their return. On the 22d of July the *Windward* arrived for the last time, and the expedition started home August 6, and on the 3d of September arrived in the Thames.

The work is written without literary skill, and might have been condensed in some parts with advantage. The ordinary statistics which might have been formulated in a few pages have to be searched for, and are often not to be found; for instance, the tonnage of the *Windward* is nowhere stated. For reference the book would have been much improved by fuller headings to the chapters, since the index, though voluminous, is far from good. The weight of the volume amounts to a positive discomfort, as it cannot be held for more than a few minutes in the hands. These criticisms made, we can freely express our admiration for the courage, persistency, and good fellowship which seem to have animated the whole party; the frank and unaffected manner in which Mr. Jackson has related his adventures; and our appreciation of the solid results obtained, in spite of the inexperience of practically the whole party. The work done, if less brilliant, is far more useful and serviceable to science than much of that which has been widely praised and lavishly rewarded.

The volume is generously illustrated, and contains excellent appendices on the ornithology, botany, geology, palæontology, and meteorology of Franz-Josef Land. The record of auroras is remarkably complete. A chapter on scurvy supports the theory that this disease is due to the ingestion of ptomaines in minute quantities, in connection with salt food. That this may be one of the causes is entirely probable, but that ptomaines alone are capable of producing scurvy will hardly be believed by those who have had the opportunity of observing the diet of many northern tribes. The observations of this expedition have put a quietus on plans for using the Franz-Josef archipelago as a base for polar research. Taken in connection with the work of the *Fram*, they go far toward proving that these islands are simply a cluster on the border of a deep polar sea, and that there is no reason for supposing that any other land of consequence lies to the northward of them. The elimination of an unfit route is almost as great a boon as the discovery of a possibly fit one. At present (barring drifts like that of the *Fram*, not to be counted on as necessarily successful), practically only the Smith Sound route remains advisable. This has been for some time the belief of many Arctic experts, and Jackson's discoveries go far toward making the consensus of opinion unanimous in this respect.

History of the Civil War, 1861-1865; Being Volume VI. of the History of the United States of America under the Constitution. By James Schouler. Dodd, Mead & Co. 8vo, pp. 647.

Mr. Schouler's new volume is a successful effort to condense the history of the civil war into the compass of a single handbook. Such a plan excludes the extended debate of open questions whether of fact or of policy, and demands rather the narrative of events as the author conceives them to have been, without the presentation at large of the evidence or the reasoning which underlies his conclusions. It is only in this way that handbooks can be made, and history brought within the scope demanded for textbooks in colleges and secondary schools. The sources and the discussion of them will be reached in another way.

Mr. Schouler's work is marked by an earnest national spirit, inspired by undoubting faith in the cause which Mr. Lincoln represented, and a full conviction that the President's course was that which the outcome proved as wise as it was patriotic. The book represents, therefore, the general conclusions to which the mass of the people have come who heartily upheld the national cause against the great rebellion. This is not done in a perfunctory way, but is based upon broad study of the period, assisted by personal recollection and experience of the author.

Anticipating the real usefulness of the book in the scope above indicated, a few minor errors may be noted by way of assisting in making it more complete. Speaking of the period of the assembling of forces preparatory to the first battle of Bull Run, the author says: "Johnston and Beauregard were two of the five generals now ranking highest in the Confederacy" (p. 77). Only four "generals" had then been appointed. Beauregard was a brigadier in the Southern Provisional Army, and was promoted to the rank of general later, for his services in this battle. (The same error is repeated on p. 88.) Mentioning Sherman, Keyes, Hunter, Burnside, Heintzelman, Franklin, and Howard, as officers who took part on the national side in the same

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battle and afterward attained distinction, Mr. Schouler adds, "But Daniel Tyler, the brigadier under whom these served on the present march, although himself from West Point, had seen little active service, and gained no later renown" (p. 78). Only the first two of the list given were subordinates of Tyler. The army was constituted of five divisions, of which Tyler's was one, and all these were under the immediate command of General McDowell.

We are told (p. 85) that after McClellan's campaign of Rich Mountain in West Virginia, "Rebellion never again penetrated the Kanawha Valley, but was forced eastward *of the mountain frontier into Virginia* proper." The actions at Rich Mountain and Carrick's Ford were not in the Kanawha Valley, from which the Confederates were not driven till McClellan had assumed command at Washington. They reoccupied the Kanawha Valley in the early fall of 1862, and were again expelled in October of that year.

The statement that Gen. Harney was relieved of command in Missouri because he did not comply with a request of Gov. Yates of Illinois for arms from the St. Louis arsenal (p. 91) is inaccurate. Neither Harney nor Lyon had authority to fill requisitions from State Governors except upon orders from the War Department. Yates asked Secretary Cameron for such an order, and got it. Meanwhile Harney had been relieved for other reasons, and Lyon, being in command when the order to supply Yates arrived, obeyed it. In the scramble for the best arms for the volunteers, in which the executives of all the States took part, it was a necessity to keep the distribution in the Secretary's own control.

On page 204 it is said that "when Johnston was disabled [at Seven Pines], Lee, who had counselled much at Richmond headquarters, now took the Virginia command for the rest of the war." Lee was already, by order of President Davis, in command of all the forces in Virginia, of which the Army of Northern Virginia was a part. He now took personal command of that army in the field. The somewhat obscure relation of these officers was analyzed in the *Nation* of December 23, 1897, under the caption, "Lee, Johnston, and Davis."

The battle-field of the second Bull Run is said (p. 211) to have been "in the Wilderness." We think that proper name was always confined to the small region around Chancellorsville, south of the Rapidan. The name, whether a proper or common noun, would not apply to the battle-field about Groveton.

In the footnote to page 315, the author says: "Sherman and some other commanders found fault with agents of the Sanitary Commission for coming to the front with local gifts to distribute, and refused them entrance unless they would divide their good things among all the troops." By "the Sanitary Commission" should be meant the United States Sanitary Commission, *par excellence* the great agency of private philanthropy in the war. This never discriminated in favor of troops from particular States or places. Local organizations for aiding special troops were comparatively small, when they existed, and should be carefully distinguished from the great one.

In describing Lee's preparation for the campaign of Gettysburg, we are told (p. 351) that "Longstreet had now brought back his contingent from the West to the Rappahannock line." Longstreet did not take his corps to the West till after the Gettysburg campaign, and they did not return till the spring of 1864. Longstreet had been personally detained by operations on the south side of the James, near the Atlantic Coast, so that he was not at Chancellorsville, but was on his way to join Lee.

Mr. Schouler has not unravelled the vexed question of the immediate cause of Hooker's request to be relieved, June 27, 1863. He says: "Halleck overruled him, . . . by refusing to let him abandon Maryland Heights and use its garrison elsewhere," and, "piqued to the quick, Hooker, after a brief discussion by wire, gave vent to his ill-smothered anger by asking to be relieved at once from his command" (p. 356). It is necessary to distinguish between Harper's Ferry in the angle of the Potomac and the Shenandoah, in Virginia, and Maryland Heights on the north side of the Potomac, opposite the Ferry. Maryland Heights, overlooking and commanding Harper's Ferry, had been regarded as a citadel to the latter since Jackson's capture of that place in the previous year, and had been carefully fortified to be held by a small garrison. The Ferry was a large post of some ten thousand men. On the 24th, Halleck had informed Hooker that the troops in Harper's Ferry and vicinity were subject to his orders. On the 26th, Hooker asked if there was any reason why Maryland Heights should not be abandoned. Halleck answered on the morning of the 27th that the Heights had always been regarded as important, and much expense and labor had been used in fortifying them; he therefore could not approve their abandonment except in case of absolute necessity. Hooker's dispatch asking to be relieved gave, as the ground, that his original orders required him to "cover" Harper's Ferry and Washington, which he was now unable to do. It said nothing of the previous question as to Maryland Heights. A separate dispatch, sent immediately before, assumed that Halleck had refused to allow him to use the garrison at Harper's Ferry, which was not true. No better is the common statement, which Mr. Schouler repeats, that Meade was, in this respect, given authority refused to Hooker. Meade asked on the 28th, "Am I permitted, under existing circumstances, to withdraw a portion of the garrison of Harper's Ferry, providing I leave sufficient force to hold Maryland Heights against a *coup de main?*" Halleck answered: "The garrison at Harper's Ferry is under your orders. You can diminish or increase it as you think the circumstances justify." Not a word in this was inconsistent with Hooker's instructions.

The mention of a gunboat "under Col. Ellet of the Marines" running the gauntlet at Vicksburg (p. 381) is not exact. The Ellets did not belong to the corps of marines, but were army volunteer officers. Gen. Ellet's fleet of gunboats was organized by him under special authority from the Secretary of War.

Burnside is said (p. 442) to have entered Knoxville "by slow marches." His march from Kentucky over the mountains was remarkable for its steady, long marches, every day, making a high daily average. The statement on p. 455 that "a prime object" of his movement was "the reinforcement of Rosecrans toward Chattanooga" is incorrect. Had that been the purpose, the union of the two columns might have been made before starting, for they moved simultaneously. The liberation of East Tennessee was Burnside's task. His protection of Rosecrans's flank as both advanced was an incidental result.

After retreating from Gettysburg and crossing into Virginia, Lee made his way up the Shenandoah Valley, not down, as is said on p. 481.

These are mostly trifling corrections, but a book which may deservedly be a guide to the studies of the young and to the general reader, will be made still better by removing even the little blemishes in the narrative.

The County Palatine of Durham: A Study in Constitutional History. By Gaillard Thomas Lapsley, Ph.D. (Harvard Historical Studies, vol. vii.). Longmans. 1900.

It is hardly to be wondered at that the study of mediæval history should never have flourished in this country. It has seemed too remote from the interests of practical life; and it has been usual to say that the materials are inaccessible. That this latter difficulty is not insuperable has been shown by the repeated rummagings in the archives of Simancas by American scholars, who have hit upon subjects attractive to their people; and with regard to very many matters which certainly need investigation, the difficulty has been greatly exaggerated. For the current respect for "unprinted documents" is rapidly becoming a mere superstition. As the long rows of the "Monumenta," of the "Rolls Series," of the "Patrologia," of publications like those of the Surtees Society or the École des Chartes creep further and further round our library shelves, the dust begins to settle upon them, and it will soon be as notable an achievement to find something hidden in Pertz as to print a new fragment of material. It is, therefore, chiefly the apparent want of connection between mediæval and modern life which explains the phenomenon to which we refer; and that it should have this result is the most natural thing in the world. It may be doubted whether even scholarly Germany has produced any considerable treatise on the Middle Ages which has not been prompted by some supposed bearing of the subject on the fortunes of the German people itself.

And yet there is one mediæval field in which American scholars have already done substantial and fruitful work, and that is the domain of English legal institutions. The 'Essays in Anglo-Saxon Law' of Mr. Henry Adams and his associates, the 'Anglo-Norman Procedure' of Mr. Bigelow, and 'The Common Law' of Mr. Holmes, preceded the rise of the new school of legal history in England; and Mr. Chief Justice Holmes, in particular, may in some sort be looked upon as the spiritual parent of Professor Maitland. But this exception illustrates the rule, for legal history is the one part of mediæval life which is of interest to any large number of cultivated Americans. Even the most utilitarian of law schools cannot altogether dispense with history. Yet even this particular impulse seems almost exhausted just now; certainly Mr. Thayer's 'Development of Trial by Jury'

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stands almost alone among the legal publications of the last few years.

Mr. Lapsley's treatise on the County Palatine of Durham, now before us, marks, let us hope, the beginning of a fresh movement towards historical investigation which shall not be limited to law and legal procedure, but shall concern itself with the whole range of mediæval English life. It is the literary first-fruits of the labors at Harvard of Prof. Gross, whom Mr. Lapsley very properly refers to as his "friend and master." This means—and the point is important—that it is the direct outcome of college and graduate school training; for it is as part of the ordinary work of the historical departments of our universities that the study of the Middle Ages must find its home, if anywhere. Only if the ordinary intelligent American undergraduate can be made to realize that modern history is but half understood without some knowledge of its background, can we expect mediæval studies to flourish in this country.

Certainly it is a matter for congratulation that so important a feature in the constitutional structure of mediæval England as the Durham palatinate should have been first critically examined and elucidated by an American scholar. Mr. Lapsley's production is a model of what such work should be. First thoroughly grounded in general constitutional lore; next becoming master of all the printed sources accessible in libraries; then collecting a great mass of additional information at the Record Office; and finally, with infinite patience, disentangling the involved threads and systematically arranging his material so as to answer every question that the subject can well suggest, Mr. Lapsley has produced a treatise which is likely long to remain authoritative, and which will enormously facilitate the toils of future historians.

The three English palatinates of Durham, Chester, and Lancaster enjoyed an amount of local independence quite unknown in the rest of England. They were, indeed, the nearest analogues to the great fiefs of France that England produced; and the question of their origin and character is really one of wide significance, since its answer throws light on both sides of the Channel. Mr. Lapsley shows good reason for believing that it was Bishop Hugh de Puiset or Pudsey—the name is just the same as that of the Dr. Pusey of our own time—who was the real founder of the palatinate. Dr. Stubbs long ago, with one of his happy phrases, referred to this great prince prelate of the early years of the thirteenth century, who "lived in three-quarters independence between the Kings of Scots and English." We now learn what exactly was the conjuncture of circumstances which enabled Hugh de Puiset to place his court on a level higher than that of any other feudal court in England. As to the sources of the Bishop of Durham's authority, Mr. Lapsley comes to the familiar conclusion in these evolutionary days—foreshadowed in the autobiography of Topsy: like everything else, it "growed." Reverence for St. Cuthbert and the needs of border defence combined to create a great franchise; and when, in the time of Henry III. and Edward I., the lawyers felt the need of some special term to describe the situation, they borrowed from Champagne and the Rhine the word "palatinus," which had the additional merit of being vague.

The one overmastering intellectual influence discernible in almost every page of the book is that of Professor Maitland. It is this which gives it the legal turn that is so very noticeable. It is the growth of the palatinate judiciary, and all the difficult questions which arose from its position at once of parallelism and of subordination to the royal courts—from the largest issues concerning competence down to the details of enforcement—which mainly engage our author's attention. And here, so far as we can judge, his conclusions are usually solidly supported and soundly argued. It is true that there are other aspects of the position of the one princely bishopric of England which deserve some attention; but Mr. Lapsley has probably done well to limit his field. As it is, his range is wide enough; and within that range—though there are points on which we might be inclined to interpret somewhat differently the evidence with which he presents us—his success is as nearly as possible complete.

The Redemption of Egypt. By W. Basil Worsfold, M.A., Barrister-at-Law. Longmans. 1899. Pp. xvii+333. Illustrations.

Pyramids and Progress: Sketches from Egypt. By John Ward, F.S.A. With an Introduction by the Rev. Professor Sayce. London: Eyre & Spottiswoode. 1900. Pp. xx+288. Illustrations.

Egypt has proved of late a fertile mother of books. "With notes and preface, all that most allures the pious (*lege* patriotic) purchaser," England pours them out like the Nile stream itself. They range from excellent through very indifferent, but each may fairly claim to have brought out some one fresh aspect at least of a strangely monotonous and simple yet many-sided and many-colored life and land. In no other country do the old and the new, the East and the West, join so nearly. Scraps of the epigram and the moralizing of the Greeks and Romans rise involuntarily as we turn the pages of each new book. The superstitions teeming from the soil, the something always new from Africa, the land the gift of the river—all the worn old phrases of the schoolroom—come back and range themselves with railroad bridges of American iron, guard-tents with kilted Highland sentries, *kūkī*-tourists in swarms, and donkeys that answer to Washington and Yankee Doodle. With each new book the picture grows in some details; fresh colors come out; present and past become more real. Seldom has a country been so described and fared so well with its describers. From the classic works—classic in senses which seem different and still are the same—of Herodotus and Lane, through all the ruck of tourists with an itch for proof-sheets and immortality, the spirit of the land—a spirit, in spite of all, of beauty and strangeness and peace—has shown its power, and even the merest turner of a hackneyed phrase is touched and changed to something less commonplace. The old soil from century to century makes its people for itself, and makes over, too, the ever-gathering crowd of describers for its people.

Mr. Worsfold is an English barrister with a taste for sketching and architecture, a keen eye for industrial developments and possibilities, trained experience as a traveller and book-maker, and a not too insistent personality. He does not bore his reader with the hairbreadth escapes of the tourist in hotels and on donkeys; he writes of what he has seen as artist and publicist. His book is one of great external beauty. His drawings, both those in black and white and the chalk and water-color sketches, have been admirably reproduced. Scattered among them are only a few photographs of the machine-made and process-cut order. His own work is marked by a curious combination of architectural drawing and impressionism which is original and refreshing. His matter, also, has high interest and value. As a lawyer Mr. Worsfold is naturally attracted to legal things, and his account of the different courts in Egypt and of the extent to which the English reforms have succeeded and have failed is the work of a specialist. With the courts administering Canon law, he tells us, only the merest beginning has been made; and yet their need is plain when we learn that the judges in them prefer to hear a string of claims in five, ten, or twenty cases, and will then adjourn to a future sitting the hearing of the corresponding string of defences. Even in the civil courts the education of the native judges can only be slow. Referring to Nubar Pasha's famous dictum, "Justice and water," Mr. Worsfold sums up with truth, "The great reservoir of Shellâl with its ancillary canals will speedily give Egypt 'water'; but the Egyptians must give themselves 'justice.'" In describing the educational system—an excellent chapter—he similarly brings out an essential point, the necessity of education for girls. It is useless to educate the boys so long as their future wives are left untaught; after marriage the one pulls the other hopelessly down. This is the true solution of the old problem how the washed and taught Oriental can be kept from returning again, as he always hitherto has done, to his Orientalism. And these are things which we, too, must now learn, and which make the value for us of books like this. We have not space to pursue further details.

Nor can we delay over the account of cotton as king, of the condition of the Fellahin, who seem very well able to take care of themselves, of railways under the burden of the *Caisse*, of sugar and finance, of local government and irrigation. There is little in all that of beauty and peace, though much of learning, of balanced good sense, and of observation. But the real book for the author, we are persuaded, lay in that charming half which tells of the architecture of Egypt, ancient and mediæval, as art and history, and which lingers lovingly over the work of long-dead craftsmen who had wrought in a sad sincerity. Mr. Worsfold is no great antiquary, and we may be thankful for it, though he occasionally, as an educated Englishman must, tells us things that he has found in his Strabo or his Herodotus. But it is evident that for him ancient, just as mediæval, Egypt is a study in art and not a jumble of Pharaohs, mummies, and pseudo-comparative religion. He gives us an exquisite crayon sketch of the Pyramids, and labors to analyze their æsthetic impressiveness. Before this problem we must leave him with regret and commendation.

Mr. Ward is a different man and has written a different book. It has a very useless three-page introduction by Prof. Sayce, a facsimile of a fourteen-word letter from

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Lord Cromer accepting the dedication, and an immense store of illustrations from the publications of the Egypt Exploration Fund, from photographs, and from sketches and paintings. These have in no way the distinction and freshness of Mr. Worsfold's drawings, and yet they constitute the chief value of the book. In it the appeal to the patriotic public is more pronounced. It tells us about the Sirdar and Lord Cromer until we are weary, and Dr. Petrie becomes like to Aristides the Just. It takes thought also for the tourist; to him it may prove very useful. Mr. Ward is curiously swayed between the Pyramids and the Sphinx and the comforts of the Saltmarket to be found in the Mena House hotel. He has roughed it in Egypt, and he gives entertaining tales of those adventures—the best part of the letter-press of his book; but his eye is keen for strategic hotel sites, and Mr. Thomas Cook is a potentate of only lesser sway than the Sirdar. To others than tourists it is his last thirty pages that will most appeal. These give a really full account, with plans and photographs, of the modern "binding of the Nile" with its three curbs of stone, the great reservoir at Assuan, the lesser at Assiut, and the Cairo barrage. It is the most complete and detailed description of the actual work that we have seen as yet in popular form.

The Caroline Islands. By F. W. Christian. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. 1899. 8vo, pp. xiv, 401; maps and illustrations.

The author of this work was at one time a resident of Samoa and associate of Robert Louis Stevenson, a cultivator of economic plants, and a student of Polynesian philology. His studies led him to Tahiti and the Marquesas and, in 1895, to Micronesia. The present volume contains an account of the last named journey with a summary of its results.

The Caroline archipelago extends for nearly two thousand miles between the parallels of 5° and 10° north latitude, east of the meridian of 134° east from Greenwich. It comprises more than thirty minor groups of coral or volcanic islands, a number of which exhibit notable eruptive masses of columnar basalt. It is inhabited by a mixed race, a cross between round-headed, light-colored Malay folk and the long-headed, almost black, crisp-haired, earlier islanders, the so-called Melanesians. The people of different islands exhibit marked differences of character, some being hospitable, kindly folk, others surly and suspicious, while in general all are fine specimens of physical development, deeply attached to their tribal independence, obedient to their chiefs, and vehement haters of the Spaniard. The commercial products are few and not very important: copra or dried cocoanut meat, pearl and tortoise-shell, and ivory nuts. In Ponapé and some of the other islands flourishing Methodist missions existed when, in July, 1886, the Spanish flag was raised. Within a year Catholic missions were started, and the inevitable friction that followed resulted in the final expulsion of the Protestant missionaries, and the confiscation of much mission property, for which, in 1890, an indemnity of seventeen thousand dollars gold was demanded by the United States and paid; more serious consequences were hostilities between the Spanish authorities and the natives, which came to a head in 1887, and have continued intermittently until now. The Spanish suffered severe losses from time to time, and it remains to be seen if the transfer to Germany and the consequent diminution of the *odium theologicum* will bring peace to these sturdy islanders.

For many years curious stories have been told, by wanderers visiting these regions, of massive stone fortifications, breakwaters, and canals, existing upon Ponapé, Ualan, and other islands, the handiwork of some race unknown to the present islanders. The exploration of some of these ruins is, to the general reader, the most interesting part of the work done by Mr. Christian. The late J. S. Kubary, well known to ethnologists, had, as an agent of the Godeffroys, somewhat earlier visited these ruins, and the two explorers were fortunate enough to meet, exchange impressions, and come to a common conclusion in regard to them.

The two principal groups of ruins are situated upon Ponapé and Ualan respectively. In the former case the stone constructions occupy an area of some eleven square miles, including the canals and spaces which separate over fifty walled islets, and an enormous breakwater on two sides, protecting this Micronesian Venice from the breakers of the Pacific. The enclosures or walls are generally rectangular in plan, with a slightly retreating outer face, sometimes reaching a height of 40 feet and a thickness of 8 to 18. The chief Ponapean group of ruins is on the southeast side of the island, next to Metalanim harbor. Here, acording to native legend, two deified heroes, Olo-chipa and Olo-chopa, built by magic spells the breakwater of Nan-moluchai and the island city it shuts in. They caused the great masses of stone to fly through the air like birds, each settling into its proper place. The stones, which often weigh several tons, are natural prisms of basalt, and, according to Kubary, were rafted down from the Not district on the north coast of Ponapé, and by means of rollers, inclined planes, and main strength hauled into place. They are laid alternately longitudinal and transverse to the plane of the wall, without any kind of mortar, and hold their positions by their weight alone, like children's blockhouses. The legends of Ponapé tell of the conquest of the island by a fierce Melanesian people who destroyed the earlier culture, and whose leader ruled with a rod of iron, after his death becoming the war god, Icho-kalakal of the present inhabitants. An upper-caste and a lower-caste language still exist on the island, and two of the principal clans trace their descent from the conqueror.

The enclosures appear to be partly fortresses, partly temples or holy places, and partly mausoleums. The author considers the group of Nan-matal, on Ponapé, as a town built out of the water by a sea-faring race, not, as Hale thought, a land city which has sunk. He agrees with Kubary that the stone buildings are the work of a long-headed black race preceding the present inhabitants, and that they afford no evidence of subsidence. Excavations in what are regarded as tombs resulted in the discovery of shell beads, fishhooks, axes of the Tridacna shell, needles, pendants, and carved shell bracelets. A bit of obsidian and a single fragment of iron also turned up, together with many fragments of human bones. A cemetery on the main island was also visited. It is by legend referred to a dwarf negrito race said to have preceded both Polynesian and Melanesian populations. Subsequently on Lele, an accessory islet of Kusaie or Ualan, other ruins, similarly titanic, but ruder and less extensive, were visited and measured.

The ethnologic information given is rather scrappy, as the author seems to have been less interested in this than in the philologic branch of his investigations. Nevertheless, much that is curious may be gleaned from his narrative. One of the most interesting items describes the huge perforated limestone disks which form a unique kind of aboriginal money, on the island of Yap. He finds the language bearing traces of Sanskrit and Dravidian as well as Malay and even Mongolian root-words, and enters into wide comparisons which seem to justify this conclusion.

The book is lavishly illustrated and well printed, and may be regarded as a valuable contribution to the knowledge of a rapidly diminishing race daily losing their aboriginal characteristics, many of which will be for ever lost to science unless other students soon follow to gather the remaining fragments while they may.

Voces Usadas en Chile. Por Aníbal Echeverría i Reyes. Santiago: Imprenta Elzeviriana. 1900. Pp. xxii+246. 12mo.

In these days, when the Anglo-Saxon of the "strenuous-life" sect insists upon giving new ideas and new vices to Filipinos and Samoans by way of the cannon and the sword, it is refreshing to discover evidences of the peaceful triumphs of the English tongue in lands far distant from the place of its birth. For this reason, were there no other, the study of "Chilianisms" whose title is given above deserves more than passing notice. The author is a lawyer of Santiago, whose scholarship is vouched for by the University of Chile and by Dr. Rodolfo Lenz, the well-known Americanist. The bibliography (pp. 1-11) surprises us with the proof it contains of the thoroughness with which, both with respect to the contributions of the aborigines to the speech of their conquerors, and with respect to the independent developments of Spanish and Portuguese speech upon the soil of the New World, the provincialisms of Mexico, Central and South America, Cuba, etc., have been studied upon the spot.

Echeverría's book, the best yet published in Chile on the subject, will be of great value to the philologist on account of the phonetic, morphologic, and lexicographic data to be found in the first part. Most interesting, perhaps, are the "vulgarisms"; here the havoc played with Castilian sounds, accents, and genders is most apparent. In *urse* it is difficult to recognize *dulce*, while *poirio* is rather unlike *podrido*, *éi* unlike *ahí*. But it is the psychological and sociological facts revealed in a book like this that are of most importance. The up-to-date character of Echeverría's vocabulary is proved by its inclusion of "bordereau," "Boers," and "Uitlanders." French and Italian have naturally had some influence upon the Chilian language, but the inroads of English have surpassed them both. To other languages than the latter, or at least not to it directly, are due: *Automóvil*, *bambino*, *bébé*, *bonhomía*, *buqué* (*bouquet* of wine), *crême* (*cream* of society), *diva*, *dilettante*, *fanciulla*, *grippe*, *madonna*, *menu*,

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merci, rêverie; German has given *bock, kirsch, talweg* (and a few other mining or topographical terms).

Some of the English words are somewhat disguised. Not at first sight would one recognize all of the following: *Breack* (*brake*, carriage), *cocke* (*i. e.*, coke), *chelin* (shilling), *espich* (speech), *macadan* (macadam), *monis* (money), *panqueque* (pancake), *queque* (cake), *stater* (*starter*, in a race), *turista* (tourist), *ulter* (ulster). To give the full list of English words adopted into the local and general speech of Chile and their sociological and psychological significances would be, in a sense, to sum up the story of our race. *Sport* is there, writ large; in this most English-like of all South American countries *el football* has met a hearty welcome, and the vocabulary fairly bristles with the technical terms belonging to the game. We find also *cricket, lawn-tennis, box* (also *boxear* and *boxeador*), *skating-rink*, etc. The sports and industries in which the horse is a factor give *four-in-hand, handicap, sweepstakes, hack, paddock, cab, tandem, stud-book, turf, match, meeting.* Society is responsible for *at home, club, fashionable, flirt* (and the verb *flirtear*), *dandy, high-life*, and a few others. Politics furnishes *bill, budget, speech, leader, self-government*, but the "boss" has apparently not yet reached Chile. A certain marked feature of Anglo-Saxon civilization contributes, in characteristic fashion, *bar, bitter(s), brandy, coctail, gin, grog, punch, whisky.* Trade and commerce have supplied *clipper, dock, coke* (*cocke*), *check, express* (train), *steamer, stok, wagon, yacht, tranway*, etc. *Schilling* is there, and *schocking*, but not "shilling shocker." Among words that may almost lay claim to world-citizenship may be mentioned the following: *beefteck, bulldog, baby, clown, dollar, humbug, interview, kodak, lunch, Miss, Mister, picnic* (here *Pic Nic*), *plum-pudding, struggle-for-life, toast, whist, gentleman, Lloyd, snob.* From English the Chilians, not quite like the French, get also their *watter-closset.* The United States in particular is responsible for *Lager beer, pilsener, coc(k)tail, rocking-chair, Mormon, lynchar* (to "lynch"), *Yankee.*

Of the words of American Indian origin in the list many have to do with quite local matters and objects, but others, *aji* (pepper), *cacique, charqui* (*jerked* meat), *chicha, Gaucho, paco, puma, puna, pampa*, are more widely known, belonging to other Spanish-American dialects as well. The much-discussed *gringo* means in Chile "an Englishman," and the Othomis of old Mexico are remembered in *Otomías*, "barbarities, wantonnesses." There is even a warning for the would-be constructors of the Nicaragua Canal, for, in Chile, *Panamá* has come to signify "fraud." May the warning avail something!

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Banks, C. E. Sword and Cross. Rand, McNally & Co.
Bolton, Prof. F. E. The Secondary School System of Germany. Appletons. $1.50.
Cobb, T. The Judgment of Helen. John Lane.
De Foe, D. A Journal of the Plague Year. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Furneaux, H. Cornelii Taciti Opera Minora. Henry Frowde. 2s.
Goodyear, W. H. Renaissance and Modern Art. Macmillan. $1.
Herrick, S. M. Thoughtful Hours. Cincinnati: The Literary Shop.
Kinnosuké, A. Iroka: Tales of Japan. Doubleday & McClure. $1.25.
Lucas, E. V. The Open Road: A Little Book for Wayfarers. Henry Holt & Co. $1.50.
Mathers, Helen. The Lovely Malincourt. Chicago: Charles H. Sergel Co. $1.25.
Official Proceedings of the International Commercial Congress. Philadelphia: The Philadelphia Commercial Museum.
Poole, R. L. Historical Atlas of Modern Europe. Part XXV. Henry Frowde.
Rushforth, G. M. Carlo Crivelli. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.75.
Smith, D. E. The Teaching of Elementary Mathematics. Macmillan. $1.
Swift, J. Battle of the Books. Cassells. 10c.
Tennyson, Alfred Lord. The Princess, and Other Poems. [Temple Classics.] London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. 50c.
Thwaites, R. G. The Jesuit Relations and Allied Documents. Vols. LXI. and LXII. Cleveland: The Burrows Brothers Co.
Titherington, R. H. A History of the Spanish-American War. Appletons. $1.50.
Tynan, Katharine. She Walks in Beauty. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.50.
Walker, T. A. A History of the Law of Nations. Macmillan. Vol. I. $3.
Wilkins, Mary E. The Love of Parson Lord. Harpers. $1.25.

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